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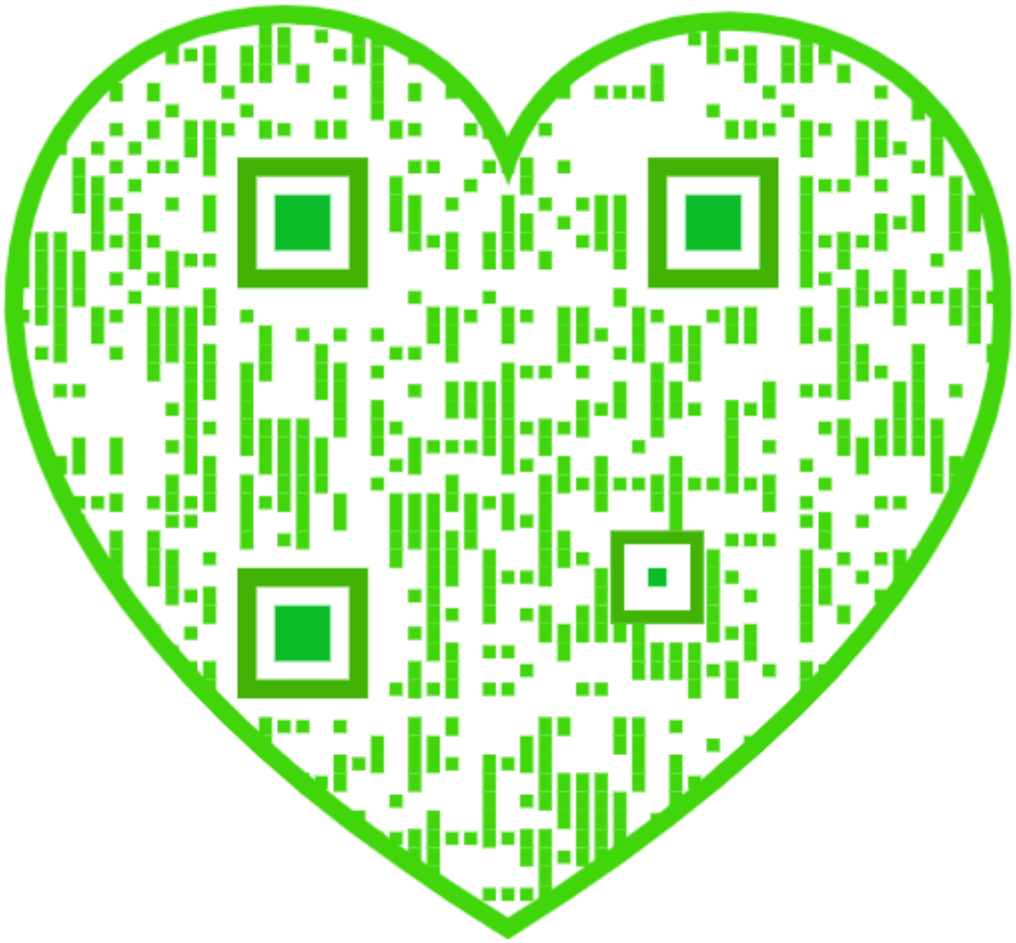

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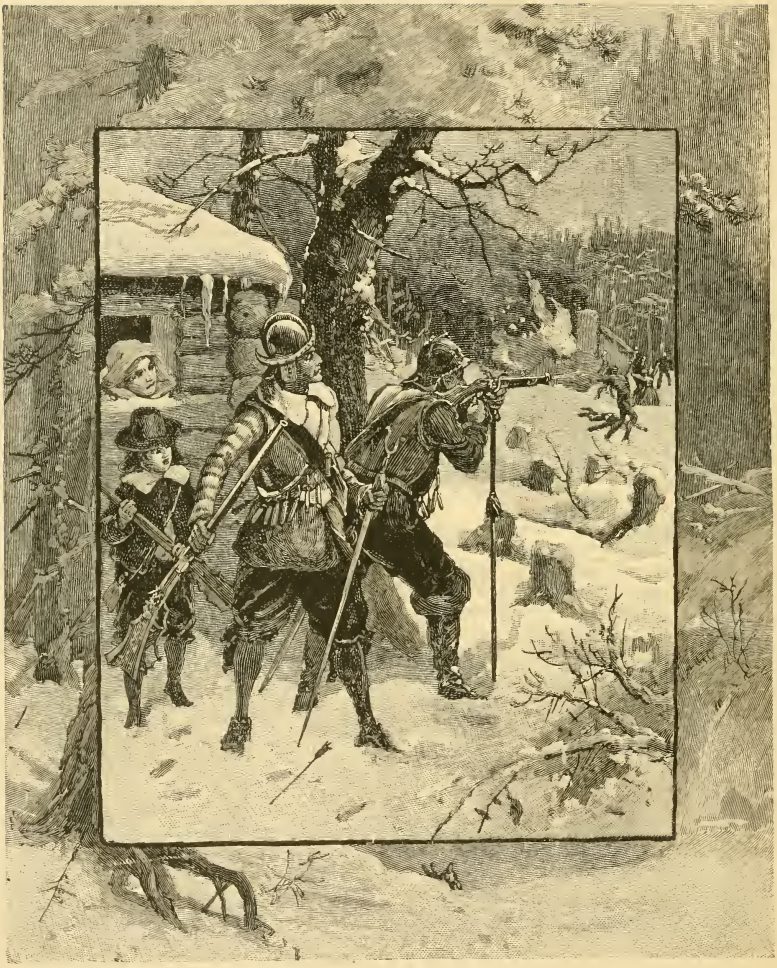

ATTACK ON A PURITAN HOME.

A

PRIMARY HISTORY

OF THE

UNITED STATES

FOR INTERMEDIATE CLASSES

BY

T. F. DONNELLY

Illustrated

NEW YORK ·:· CINCINNATI ·:· CHICAGO

AMERICAN BOOK COMPANY

I. O.

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Barnes's History Series.

Primary History of the United States.

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Preface

The most casual observer can not have failed to notice that within a few years past a taste for the study of American History has been rapidly growing in this country. To meet the demand which this taste has created, historical works are coming from the press almost as profusely as popular novels; and no articles that appear in the magazines and newspapers of the day, are more acceptable or more generally read than those which treat of historical subjects.

A most gratifying feature of this tendency is that it has reached our common schools, and that pupils in the lower grades, where history has never before been taught, are eagerly seeking to know something of their country's history. The great difficulty, however, in the way of teaching history in the intermediate and primary grades, heretofore, has been the want of a proper text-book. This little book is designed to meet this want. In its preparation, an effort has been made to tell the story of our country in a simple and natural manner. The language used, while it is not above the comprehension of pupils of the grades for which it is intended, is not, on the other hand, beneath them—an error too generally committed in works of this character. That there is a fundamental difference between simplicity of thought and simplicity of expression, is a fact which has been borne in mind throughout.

At the end of each chapter will be found a series of carefully prepared questions, and references to historical poems and ballads, which embody incidents treated of in the text. The judicious teacher will find the latter of great service in selecting material for reading or recitation in connection with the history lesson. Nothing, it may be said, will aid more in fixing a fact of history in the memory of a boy or girl than a stirring ballad or poem, in which the fact or incident is pictured before them with all the charms of imagination. When, for example, the story of the fight between the "Constitution and the Guerrière" is being studied, the teacher will find an added stimulus given to the lesson by causing some bright pupil to read or recite Holmes' fine poem of "Old Ironsides". Where, in any particular instance, the ballad or poem is considered too difficult for the pupils, it should be read or recited by the teacher.

That the current of the story might be impeded as little as possible, many minor topics and incidents, generally found in school histories, have been omitted from this little book altogether. This has afforded opportunity for a fuller and broader treatment of the more important events than is usually given in elementary works on history.

While dates have been freely supplied at the beginning of each paragraph, to indicate the chronological sequence of the story, few have been introduced in the body of the narrative; for experience teaches that nothing tends more to confuse and bewilder the historical student, young or old, than a multiplicity of dates. The dates of the great events, the turning points of history, are the only ones really necessary to be committed to memory by any student. It is infinitely more important that the pupil should be able to give the causes of an historical event, and its relation to or dependence on other events, than the date when it occurred.

The youth of the present age are bright and inquisitive. They are not to be put off with a mere recital of facts, but want to know the why and the wherefore of every thing. Recognizing this wholesome propensity, an attempt has been made throughout this little book to diffuse, in a familiar way, just enough of the philosophy of history to give the young beginner an idea of cause and effect in human affairs.

The superior artistic and mechanical execution of this work, on which no expense has been spared, shows that the publishers realize their responsibilities as educators of the public taste.

T. F. D.

INTRODUCTION.

	PAGE
The Indians	11
The Mound-Builders	13
The Northmen	14

PART I.—Early Discoveries and Settlements.

Four Hundred Years Ago	15
Marco Polo and his Travels	15
The Compass and the Astrolabe	16
Columbus' Idea	16
Columbus in Search of Help	17
The Voyage	17
The Discovery	18
Columbus Returns to Spain	20
Later Voyages of Columbus	20
The Voyages of the Cabots	21
Amerigo Vespucci	21
Ponce de Leon	22
Verrazani	22
De Narvaez	23
Jacques Cartier	23
Ferdinand de Soto	23
The Mississippi River	24
Fifty Years after the Discovery of America	25
The First Colony in America	25
Menendez	25
Frobisher	26
Sir Francis Drake	26
Sir Humphrey Gilbert	26
Sir Walter Raleigh	26
One Hundred Years after the Discovery of America	27
The Beginning of a New Century	27
The First English Settlement	28
Henry Hudson	28

PART II.—The Colonies.

Virginia.

Character of the Colonists	31
Captain John Smith	32
The Starving Time	33
Slavery	35
Growth of the Colony	35
The Indian War	35
Oppression of the Colony	36
Bacon's Rebellion	37

PART II.—Continued.

PAGE

New York.

The Dutch in New Netherland..... 38
The Dutch Governors..... 40
New Amsterdam becomes New York 40
English Rule..... 40
Leisler's Rebellion..... 41
Oppression of the Colony..... 41

Massachusetts.

The Plymouth Company..... 42
The Pilgrims..... 42
The Landing of the Pilgrims..... 42
Hardships of the Colonists..... 43
Massachusetts Bay Colony..... 45
King Philip's War..... 46
Atrocities of the Indians..... 46
The Indian Power Broken..... 47
Effect of the War..... 47
Character of the Colonists..... 47
Union of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay Colony..... 48

New Jersey.

Original Grants..... 48
Troubles with New York..... 49
Division of New Jersey..... 49
Dissatisfaction of the Colonists..... 49

Maryland.

Lord Baltimore..... 50
Religious Freedom..... 50
Clayborne's Rebellion..... 50
Civil Troubles..... 51
Civil War..... 51

Rhode Island.

Roger Williams.....51
Williams' Views..... 51
Governor Winthrop's Kindness..... 52
The Providence Plantation..... 52
The Rhode Island Plantation..... 52

PAGE

The Charter of the Combined Colonies..... 53
Religious Freedom..... 53

Connecticut.

The Connecticut Colony..... 53
The Pequod War..... 53
An Appeal to Roger Williams..... 54
The First Bloodshed..... 54
Destruction of the Pequods..... 55
The New Haven Colony..... 55
The New England League..... 55
Union of the Connecticut Colonies.. 56
The Charter Concealed..... 56

New Hampshire.

First Settlements..... 56
The Charter Withdrawn..... 57
Changes in Government..... 57
Difficulties of the Colony..... 57

Delaware.

The First Colony..... 58
Settlement of New Sweden..... 58
Conquered by the Dutch..... 58
Captured by the English..... 58

Pennsylvania.

The Grant to William Penn..... 59
First Settlement..... 59
The Quakers and the Indians..... 60
Government of the Colony..... 62
Growth of the Colony..... 62

The Carolinas.

First Settlements..... 62
The Albemarle Colony..... 63
The Plans of the Proprietors..... 63
The Carteret Colony..... 64
Character of the Colonists..... 64
Government of the Colony..... 64

PART II.—Continued.

PAGE

Georgia.

James Oglethorpe's Scheme..... 65
The First Settlement..... 65
Troubles with the Spaniards..... 66
Government of the Colony..... 67

The French in North America.

Early French Explorations..... 69
Champlain..... 69
Marquette..... 69
La Salle..... 71

PAGE

The Colonial Wars.

King William's War..... 73
Queen Anne's War..... 74
King George's War..... 75
The French and Indian War..... 76
How the War Came About..... 77
The First Fight..... 77
Braddock's Defeat..... 78
The War in the North..... 80
The Battle of Lake George..... 80
English Disasters..... 81
How a Change Came About..... 82
The Capture of Quebec..... 82
End of the War..... 83

PART III.—The Revolutionary War.

Treatment of the Colonies..... 85
The Navigation Act..... 86
Acts of Trade..... 87
Restricting Foreign Trade..... 87
Writs of Assistance..... 88
Training the Colonists..... 89
Origin of the Trouble..... 90
The Stamp Act..... 90
The Mutiny Act..... 92
The Boston Massacre..... 92
The Tea Tax..... 92
Getting Ready for War..... 93
The "Minute Men"..... 93
How the War Began..... 94
The Rally after Lexington..... 97
Battle of Bunker Hill..... 97
Capture of Ticonderoga..... 98
Other Events of 1775..... 99
Early Events of 1776..... 100
The Declaration of Independence..... 100
New York taken by the British..... 100
Washington's Retreat..... 101
Battle of Trenton..... 101
Battle of Princeton..... 102
Philadelphia taken by the British..... 102
Burgoyne Captured..... 104
Hardships at Valley Forge..... 106
Aid from France..... 107
Progress of the War..... 107
The Treason of Arnold..... 109
The War in the South..... 110
Greene's Campaign in the South..... 112
Siege of Yorktown..... 113
The End of the War..... 115

PART IV.—Development of the States.

The State of the Country..... 117
The First Effort toward Union..... 118
Political Parties..... 119
The Constitution..... 119
Formation of the Government..... 119

Washington's Administration.

The First President..... 120
The Work of the Administration..... 121
Foreign Affairs..... 122
Political Parties..... 122

PART IV.—Continued.

PAGE

John Adams' Administration.

Condition of the Country 124
The Quarrel with France.... 124
The Alien and Sedition Laws... ... 125

Jefferson's Administration.

The War with Tripoli 126
The Louisiana Purchase 127
The Slave Trade..... 128
The Quarrel with England..... 129
The Embargo Act 129
A New State..... 131
Introduction of Steam-boats..... 131

Madison's Administration.

War with England..... 131
Opposition to the War..... 131
General Hull's Surrender 132
The War on the Water..... 133
Invasion of Canada..... 134
Perry's Victory on Lake Erie 134
Battle of the Thames..... 135
The Creek War..... 135
Battle of Lake Champlain 136
Battle of New Orleans..... 137
Peace Declared 139
Punishing the Pirates..... 139
Politics 139
New States..... 140

Monroe's Administration.

The Era of Good Feeling..... 140
The Missouri Compromise..... 140
Florida..... 141
New States..... 141
Politics..... 141
The Tariff Question..... 142

John Quincy Adams' Administration.

Condition of the Country..... .. 143
The Tariff Question..... 144

PAGE

Jackson's Administration.

Troubles over the Tariff..... .. 144
The Bank Troubles..... .. 145
Indian Wars..... 147
New States..... 147
The Election..... 147

Van Buren's Administration.

The Panic of 1837 148
Politics..... 149

Harrison and Tyler's Administration.

Death of Harrison..... 149
Tyler's Vetoes 149
Annexation of Texas..... 150
Florida..... 151
The Telegraph..... 151

Polk's Administration.

War with Mexico..... 151
Plan of the War 152
General Taylor's Campaign..... 154
General Scott's Campaign..... 156
Result of the War..... 156
Discovery of Gold in California.... 157
Slavery Agitation..... 159
New States..... 160

Taylor and Fillmore's Administration.

Compromise of 1850 160
Politics 161

Pierce's Administration.

Kansas-Nebraska Bill..... 161
Civil War in Kansas..... 162
Politics..... 162

Buchanan's Administration.

Quarrel about Slavery..... 163
The Dred Scott Case.. 163

PART IV.—Continued.

	PAGE
John Brown's Raid	164
Politics	164
Secession of Southern States	166
New States	168

PART V.—The Civil War.

Condition of the Country	171
Bombardment of Fort Sumter	172
The Effect	172
First Movement of the Armies	173
Battle of Bull Run	174
Effect of Bull Run	175
Other Events of the Summer	175
Battle of Ball's Bluff	176
Plan of the War	176
War on the Coast	176
Blockade-Running	177
Progress of the War	179
Forts Henry and Donelson Captured	179
Battle of Shiloh	180
Operations on the Mississippi	181
War on the Coast	181
The Monitor and Merrimac	182
McClellan's Plan	184
Battle of Williamsburg	184
Siege of Richmond	185
Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley	185
Battle of Fair Oaks	186
The Seven Days Battle	186
Lee's Movement to the North	187
Lee Invades Maryland	187
Battle of Antietam	188
Battle of Fredericksburg	188
War in the West	189
Battles of Iuka and Corinth	189
Battle of Murfreesborough	191
The Vicksburg Expedition	191
Emancipation of the Slaves	192
Battle of Chancellorsville	192
Battle of Gettysburg	194
Capture of Vicksburg	195
Capture of Port Hudson	196
War in the Center	197
Siege of Chattanooga	197
Red River Expedition	199
Plan of Campaign for 1864	199
Campaign in Virginia	200
Battle of Cold Harbor	201
Grant's Plan	202
Early's Campaign	202
The Alabama and the Kearsarge	202
The Campaign in the West	203
Sherman's March to the Sea	204
The Situation	204
End of the War	204
New States	206
Assassination of Lincoln	206

PART VI.—Reconstruction and Passing Events.

Johnson's Administration.	
Reconstruction	211
Impeachment of the President	212
Constitutional Amendments	212
Purchase of Alaska	213
A New State	213
The Ocean Telegraph	213
Politics	214

PART VI.—Continued.

PAGE

Grant's Administration.

The Pacific Railroad 214
The Treaty of Washington 215
The Great Fires 215
Politics 216
The Panic of 1873 217
The Centennial Exhibition 217
Indian Wars 217
The Disputed Election 218

Hayes' Administration.

Domestic Affairs 219
The Railroad Riots 219
The Yellow Fever Epidemic 219
Politics 220
A New State 220

Garfield and Arthur's Administration.

Assassination of President Garfield. 221
Vice-President Arthur becomes President 222
Civil Service Reform 222
Politics 224

Cleveland's First Administration.

Civil Service Reform 225
Death of General Grant 225
The Charleston Earthquake 227
The Tariff Question 227
Politics 228

Harrison's Administration.

Centennial Celebration of the Founding of the Government 229
The Johnstown Disaster 230
Tariff and Politics 231
New States 231

PAGE

Cleveland's Second Administration.

Financial Depression and Tariff 231
The World's Columbian Exposition. 232
Labor Troubles and Politics 232
New State 232

McKinley's Administration.

The Tariff 233
The War with Spain 233
Hawaii 235
McKinley assassinated 235

Roosevelt's Administration.

Panama Canal 235
The San Francisco Earthquake 236
New State 236
Politics 236

Taft's Administration.

Peary at the North Pole 237
The Tariff 237
New States 237
Constitutional Amendments 237
Politics 237

Wilson's Administration.

The Tariff 238
The Panama Canal 238
War in Mexico 238
War in Europe 238
Politics 239
New Possessions 239
War with Germany 239
Amendments 240
Politics 241

Administrations of Harding and Coolidge.

Important Treaties 241
The Tariff 241
Coolidge becomes President 241
Politics 242

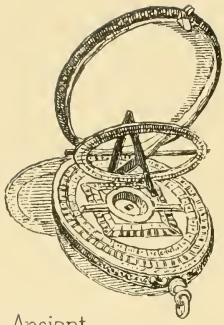
ILLUSTRATIONS.

NO.		PAGE
1.	Frontispiece—Attack on a Puritan Home.	
2.	Chapter Heading.	11
3.	Scene in Indian Life.	12
4.	Northmen Landing in America.	13
5.	Chapter Heading.	15
6.	Portrait of Columbus.	17
7.	Columbus taking Possession of the Country	19
8.	Burial of De Soto.	24
9.	Hudson Exploring the Hudson River.	28
10.	Portrait of Henry Hudson	29
11.	Chapter Heading.	31
12.	John Smith Trading with the Indians.	32
13.	A Method of Indian Burial	36
14.	Ruins of Jamestown	37
15.	A Scene in New Amsterdam.	39
16.	Puritans on the Way to Church.	44
17.	Canonicus Receiving the Powder and Bullets from Governor Bradford.	45
18.	Indian Attack on a Settlement.	54
19.	Portrait of William Penn	60
20.	Penn's Treaty Tree.	61
21.	Cartier Landing at Montreal.	68
22.	A Colonial Family Fleeing from the Indians.	73
23.	Chapter Heading	85
24.	British Tax Stamps.	91
25.	The Retreat of the British from Lexington.	95
26.	Going to Boston.	96
27.	The Patriots Building Fortifications around Boston.	97
28.	Capture of Fort Ticonderoga	99
29.	Battle of Saratoga.	103
30.	Battle of Bennington.	105
31.	In Camp at Valley Forge.	106
32.	Benjamin Franklin	107
33.	Capture of Stony Point.	109
34.	Portrait of Marion.	110

NO.		PAGE
35.	Marquis de la Fayette	113
36.	Storming a Fort at Yorktown	114
37.	Chapter Heading	117
38.	Portraits of Hamilton, Washington, and Jefferson	121
39.	Fulton's Steam-boat	130
40.	Battle between the Guerrière and Constitution	133
41.	Battle of New Orleans	137
42.	Portrait of Andrew Jackson	145
43.	Portraits of Calhoun, Clay, and Webster	146
44.	Portrait of Zachary Taylor	154
45.	General Taylor at Buena Vista	155
46.	Washing out Gold	157
47.	San Francisco in 1835, and now	158
48.	Abraham Lincoln	165
49.	Jefferson Davis	167
50.	Chapter Heading	171
51.	Battle of Bull Run	174
52.	Gun-boats Attacking Fort Donelson	180
53.	The Merrimac and the Monitor	183
54.	General Grant on the Battle-field	190
55.	Battle of Missionary Ridge	198
56.	Grant Writing the Order for Sherman's Advance	200
57.	Union and Confederate Heroes	205
58.	Chapter Heading	211
59.	Landing the Atlantic Cable	213
60.	Portrait of President Garfield	221
61.	Portrait of President Cleveland	224
62.	Tomb of General Grant, etc.	226
63.	Portrait of President Harrison	229
64.	Portrait of President McKinley	233
65.	Destroying the Spanish Fleet at Santiago	234
66.	Victorious American Troops in Paris, Fourth of July Parade, 1918	240

LIST OF MAPS.

1.	Map to Illustrate Early Explorations	11
2.	Map of French Explorations along the Mississippi River	70
3.	Map to Illustrate the Colonial Wars	79
4.	Map to Illustrate the War in the South	111
5.	Map to Illustrate the War of 1812-1814	132
6.	Map to Illustrate the War with Mexico	153
7.	Map to Illustrate the War in the West	178
8.	Map of McClellan's Campaign in the Peninsula	184
9.	Grant's Campaign around Richmond	201

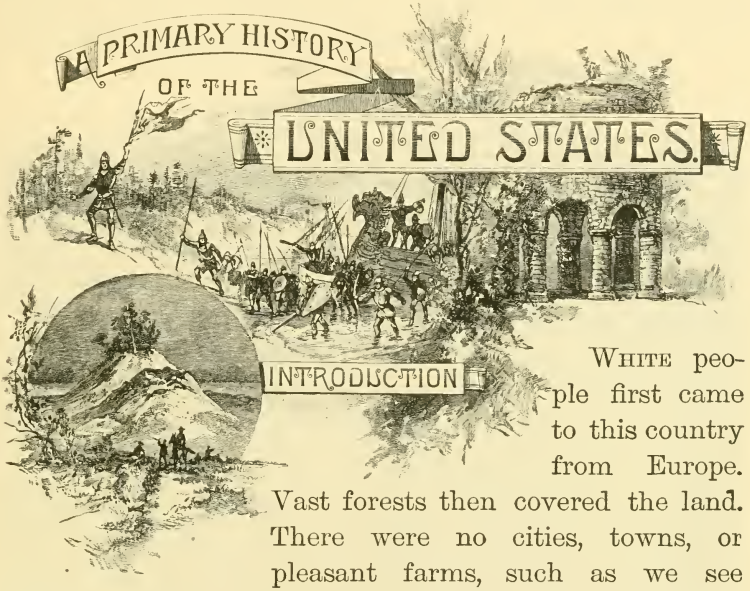


Ancient "Astrolabe"

Ocean "Steamer" 1892

Mariners' Compass.

"Caravel" 1492.



White people first came to this country from Europe. Vast forests then covered the land. There were no cities, towns, or pleasant farms, such as we see to-day. The only people they found living here were a wild race of men whom they called Indians.

The Indians.—Perhaps you may have seen some of these people. They are of a reddish or copper color, and dress in a strange way. They like to wear beads, feathers, and other trinkets. In times of war, they paint their faces and make themselves look as fierce as possible.

The huts or tents in which they live are made of bark or skins and are called wigwams (wĭg′wąmz). Hunting, fishing, and war are the occupations of the men. All the hard work is done by the women.

probably the builders of those great mounds of earth which are found in some of the Western States.

Pitchers and bowls of burnt clay, and many other curious articles, have been found in these mounds. We know, therefore, that the Mound Builders must have been partly civilized. They were doubtless driven away or killed by the Indians who afterward took possession of the country.

The Northmen.—The people of Iceland and Norway claim that their ships sailed across the Atlantic a thousand years ago, and that they planted settlements along our coast. None of their settlements could have prospered, however, since the people did not remain in the country. Even the fact of their coming was for a long time forgotten.

QUESTIONS.

1. What people were found in this country when white men first came here?
2. How do Indians dress? How do they live?
3. What are their houses called? Of what are they made?
4. Among Indians, who do the work? What do the men do?
5. Are Indians found anywhere else? Where?
6. What is said of these Indians?
7. What other race of people lived here before the Indians?
8. Were they wild? How do we know they were not?
9. What have been found in the mounds?
10. Who were the Northmen?
11. How long ago are they supposed to have been here?
12. How do we know that the Northmen made no settlements here?

FOR READING OR RECITATION.

A Chippewa Legend.—LOWELL.
An Indian at the Burial-place of his Fathers.—BRYANT.
The Skeleton in Armor.—LONGFELLOW.

PART I.

EARLY DISCOVERIES AND SETTLEMENTS

Europe Four Hundred and Fifty Years Ago.—Four hundred and fifty years ago, the people of Europe did not know that a great continent lay on the other side of the Atlantic. Indeed, they knew very little even about that part of the world in which they lived, for travel was not common in those days. A great change, however, was soon to take place.

Printing had been invented and books were being made and read. A few daring travelers had found their way into distant lands and, returning, told of what they had seen. People soon became eager to learn more about other parts of the world.

Marco Polo.—One of those great travelers was Marco Polo. He had written a book in which he gave a wonderful story of his adventures in Japan, China, and other parts of Eastern Asia. All those countries were then

spoken of by the people of Europe under the general name of India.

Marco Polo's book caused much talk, for it told too of the wondrous riches of the East and made the great merchants of Europe wish to go there to trade. But in order to trade with India, it was necessary for them to make long and dangerous journeys. It is true that laces, silks and spices were brought, in small quantities, by caravans across the deserts to the Mediterranean Sea, and thence by ships to Europe; but articles obtained in this way were very costly. No one had yet thought of reaching India by ships. When at sea, sailors could not tell how to find their way and, therefore, did not trust themselves far from land.

The Compass and the Astrolabe. — Some years later, however, there came into use the mariner's compass, which showed in what direction a ship was moving, and the astrolabe, an instrument which enabled sailors to know where they were. With these two instruments to guide them, they were no longer afraid to sail out of sight of land. A number of men under a bold leader named Diaz (dee'äth) went around the most southerly point of Africa, and came back to tell of their adventures.

Columbus' Idea. — At about the same time, a sailor named Christopher Columbus (krĭs'to fer ko lŭm'bŭs) was trying to make people believe that the world was round, and that to reach India, all they need do was to sail westward, instead of making a long journey eastward by land. Columbus had no idea of the real size of the

world, and thought it much smaller than it is. He felt quite sure that by following his plan, he could reach India in less than one half the time required in going the old way.

Columbus in Search of Help.—Anxious as people were to get to India, they could not believe that Columbus was right; and so, after talking about his plans for some years, they came to consider him as a half-crazy fellow who was not to be trusted.

COLUMBUS.

He tried to get ships and men from Ferdinand, King of Spain, but failed. He then made up his mind to go to England or France. But as he was about to depart, he was persuaded to lay his plans before the Spanish queen, Isabella. The queen believed what Columbus told her about the shape of the world and the short way to India. She said he should have both ships and men, even if she had to give up her jewels to get them.

The Voyage.—With so good a friend to aid him, Columbus found himself, a few months afterward, in command of a fleet of three small ships. He joyfully

set out over an unknown ocean, led on by the hope of finding a shorter way to India.

A voyage across the ocean, even when made in the ships of the present time, is not altogether free from danger. We may easily imagine, then, how frightened those sailors must have been who went with Columbus. Their minds were full of the foolish stories, common at that time, of "the lands of fire and boiling seas lying near the setting sun". Every day, they thought, was only bringing them nearer certain death.

The ships of the time were not much larger than the small sloops now used on our rivers, and in a storm were hard to manage. Only a very brave man would have ventured on a long voyage in one of them.

After three weeks, Columbus reached the Canary Isles, where he took on board fresh supplies of food and water, and repaired one of his ships that had lost her rudder.

The Discovery.—After leaving the islands, he sailed westward for many days without seeing any signs of land, till the terror of the sailors became so great that they begged him to return home. They even planned to throw him overboard, when he would not go back. In spite of all dangers, however, the brave leader kept on; and, at last, on the 12th of October, 1492, landed on an island that he named San Salvador (sän säl vä dōr′).

Now that land had really been found, the sailors were glad they had come with Columbus. Those who had behaved badly on the voyage begged his pardon, which, in the hour of success, he freely granted.

Columbus, supposing that the island on which he landed was a part of India, called the people whom he found there Indians. They were much frightened when they saw the ships, which they supposed to be great birds, and for some time, hardly dared approach the white men who had come upon their shores. The kindly manner of Columbus gave them courage, and they then

COLUMBUS TAKING POSSESSION OF THE COUNTRY.

welcomed the strangers and brought supplies of fruit and other kinds of food.

Columbus and his men set up a great cross on the shore, and, after giving thanks to God for their safe voyage, took possession of the country in the name of

the Spanish king and queen, Ferdinand and Isabella.

Leaving San Salvador, Columbus again sailed westward, hoping to reach the main-land. Instead of this, he discovered a number of other islands, among which were Cuba and Haiti (hā'tĭ). Everywhere Columbus inquired for gold and precious stones, but could not find them.

Columbus Returns to Spain. — At length, he set out to return to Spain, taking with him some Indians and many kinds of fruit, birds, and animals, to show to the people at home. He reached Spain in safety after a stormy and dangerous voyage, and was received with great honor by the king and queen. They listened with joy to his account of the wonderful country across the ocean. The day of his arrival was made a general holiday, and those who had formerly been his enemies now seemed the most anxious to become his friends.

Later Voyages of Columbus. — Columbus soon sailed westward again in the hope of finding other lands. He made four voyages in all. During one of them (1498), he reached the main-land, near the O ri no'co River. It was not known, however, until some years later, that a new continent had been discovered. Columbus himself died, believing that he had only found a short way to India.

Columbus was treated very badly during the last few years of his life. His enemies became jealous of his success and tried to rob him of the honors he had gained. Once he was sent home in chains; and he finally

died (1506) of a disease brought on by his many troubles and sufferings.

The Voyages of the Cabots.—Now that some one had shown the way, others were anxious to explore the wonderful land across the ocean. A year before Columbus saw the main-land, it had been discovered (1497) by two bold sailors, John and Sebastian Cabot (se băs'tian cab'ot), who sailed under the flag of England. The object of their voyage also was, by sailing to the north-west, to find a short way to India.

After landing on the coast of Labrador, the Cabots sailed southward as far as Newfoundland. On returning to England, they carried with them two Indians and some turkeys.

During the next year (1498), Sebastian Cabot explored the same coast, from Newfoundland southward as far as North Carolina. By reason of these two voyages, England afterward claimed as her own, not only all the coast, along which the Cabots had sailed, but also all the land back of it even to the Pacific Ocean.

Amerigo Vespucci (ä mā ree'gō vĕs poot'chee).—*How a Printer named this Continent.*—No name had yet been given to the new land which had been discovered, for it was still supposed to be a part of India. A year later (1499), a man named Amerigo Vespucci, a friend of Columbus, visited the main-land, and wrote an account of the country. Some years afterward this account was published in Germany, and the printer, in giving the title to the book, called the new country America. This

book received much attention from learned men in all the countries of Europe, and the name America soon came into general use.

Ponce de Leon (pōn′thā dā lā ōn′). — Voyages to the New World soon became frequent. Men of other nations, besides Spain and England, set out to find wealth in a land supposed to be as rich as India itself. Once in a while, too, some one went for a different purpose, as was the case with Ponce de Leon. He had been with Columbus on one of his voyages, and had heard about a magical fountain supposed to be somewhere in America; so now in his old age, he resolved to find it. It was said that whoever bathed in the water of this fountain, became young again.

Ponce de Leon did not, of course, find the fountain; but he discovered (1512) a new country which he called Florida. On account of his discovery Spain afterward claimed the southern part of the United States and all the country west of the Mississippi River.

Balboa (bäl bō′ä), another Spaniard, crossed the isthmus between North and South America (1513), and was the first white man to look upon the Pacific Ocean.

The Spaniards visited and conquered Mexico (1519), and afterward explored Central America and parts of South America. The result of all this enterprise on the part of Spain, was to make her the richest and most powerful nation of Europe.

Verrazani (vĕr ä zä′ nee). — When the French king found that Spain and England were adding so much

new country to their possessions, he thought that France also ought to have a share. He therefore sent (1524) a sailor, named Verrazani, to claim some part of America.

Verrazani sailed along the coast from North Carolina northward to Newfoundland, entering during the voyage the harbor of New York. This was exactly the same country the Cabots had discovered for England; but Verrazani did not know it. He therefore took possession in the name of the French king and called the region New France.

De Narvaez (da nar vä′ĕth). Some years after these events, a party of Spaniards, under a leader named De Narvaez, landed in Florida (1528), and tried to conquer the country. Only four of these men lived to return.

Jacques Cartier (zhäk cär tē ā′) was the next explorer after Verrazani, sent by France to America. After reaching Newfoundland (1534), he sailed up the St. Lawrence River to where Montreal now stands. All the country he saw he claimed for France, although the English, as you will remember, already claimed it on account of its discovery by the Cabots.

The dispute between England and France about this land was settled, as we shall see, long years afterward, by bloody wars.

Ferdinand De Soto (dā sō′tō).—In spite of the fate of De Narvaez and his men, the Spaniards again sought to take possession of Florida. Ferdinand de Soto, with a small army, passed through the country and had many battles with the Indians.

He traveled (1539) over the region now covered by the States of Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi. He found the Indians partly civilized, and hoped by going farther, to discover a nation as rich as the one in Mexico. Like all the Spaniards, he, too, was looking for gold, silver, and precious stones, but did not find them.

BURIAL OF DE SOTO AT NIGHT.

The Mississippi River. — After wandering about for two or three years in a useless search for gold, he finally discovered the Mississippi River. A few weeks later he died, and was buried at midnight beneath the waters of that mighty stream.

His company, discouraged by the loss of their bold

leader, now tried to find their way to their countrymen in Mexico. They met with many dangers on the way, and suffered much from hunger and sickness. Scarcely one half of them lived to get to the Spanish settlements. The attempt to conquer Florida had again failed, and there were no Spaniards left in that part of the country.

Fifty years after the discovery of America, no permanent settlement had been made within the present limits of the United States. The people who had come here were in search either of gold or adventure, and had no desire to remain. Many others, however, were only waiting to learn more about the country, before leaving Europe to make for themselves happier homes in the New World.

The First Colony in America was attempted by some French Protestants, called Huguenots (hū′gĕn ōz). A company of them, under Jean Ribaut (zhŏn rē bō′), landed (1562) on the coast of South Carolina, and built a fort, called Port Royal. This attempt at settlement proved a failure, and those of the colonists who survived returned to France. The French planted another colony, two years later, on the St. Johns River, in Florida.

Menendez (mā nĕn′dĕth), with a company of Spaniards, in the following year (1565), settled at St. Augustine (ạw′gŭs teen′). He attacked and destroyed the French colony on the St. Johns River.

St. Augustine is the oldest town in our country. Many people go there every year to see the queer old ruins and the fort the Spaniards built so long ago.

Santa Fe (fā), the second permanent settlement in our country, was founded by the Spaniards before 1600.

During all this time, the English had not taken possession of the country discovered by the Cabots. Too many stirring events had been occurring at home to permit them to devote much attention to the planting of colonies. But they had not given up the dream of a shorter way to India.

Frobisher (frŏb′ĭsh ĕr) in trying to find a passage to India, sailed (1576) into Baffin Bay and took possession of the country for England. He made two attempts to plant colonies in Labrador, but failed because the climate was too cold for farming.

Sir Francis Drake was the first Englishman to sail (1579) around the world. He explored the coast of Oregon and California, and passed a winter near the spot where San Francisco now stands.

The English now began to think of making settlements in America.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert tried to plant a colony in Newfoundland, but did not succeed, and, in returning to England, was lost at sea.

Sir Walter Raleigh (rą̄w′lĭ), a half-brother of Gilbert, was greatly liked by the English queen, Elizabeth. She gave him a grant of a large tract of country in the New World, which, in her honor, was called Virginia.

Raleigh then sent out a colony, which settled on Roanoke Island (1583). Instead of working, the colonists spent their time looking for gold and pearls. They soon

wasted their supply of food, and would have starved had not Sir Francis Drake happened to pass that way with his ships. He took them back to England, and thus this colony also failed.

Three or four years later, Raleigh made another attempt to plant a colony in Virginia. This proved even a worse failure than the former one. Raleigh had now spent a fortune in these attempts at colonization, with no result except that the men first sent out took potatoes and tobacco back to England and taught people there how to use them.

One Hundred Years after the Discovery of America, there were but two towns in the country, and they were Spanish. England had not yet made a permanent settlement.

The Beginning of a New Century brought a change. The English were now in earnest, and their ships made frequent voyages to America for the purpose of trading with the Indians.

The French had already begun to fish on the banks of Newfoundland, and they, as well as the English, were anxious to secure permanent colonies.

Virginia was the name given by the English to all the country from Nova Scotia to Florida.

King James of England gave this land to two companies, on their promise to send people to settle there.

A part of southern Virginia was given to the London Company, and a part of northern Virginia to the Plymouth Company.

The First English Settlement was made by the London Company (1607) at Jamestown, on the James River, in South Virginia. This was the first permanent English settlement in the New World.

HUDSON EXPLORING THE HUDSON RIVER.

A second English settlement was made (1620) by the Pilgrims (or Puritans) at Plymouth, in North Virginia.

Henry Hudson, an English sailor, was sent out by the Dutch (1609), to secure some part of America for them. Sailing along the coast from Delaware Bay northward, he entered the harbor of New York, and discovered the

noble river which bears his name. Afterward he cruised along the coast of Connecticut. The Dutch made a settlement at New Amsterdam (1613), and claiming all the region explored by Hudson, called it New Netherland.

You will learn more of these colonies hereafter. Before going on with their story, let us take a look at the map (page 11), and see just where the first settlements were planted.

The Spanish towns were at St. Augustine, Florida, and at Santa Fe, New Mexico.

The English settlements were at Jamestown, Virginia, and at Plymouth, Massachusetts.

New Amsterdam, a Dutch settlement, was made on the island where the city of New York now stands.

HENRY HUDSON.

These are all we can find on the map, showing the country as it was a hundred and twenty-eight years after Columbus discovered America. Our great country,—extending over the continent, in one direction, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, and in another from the St. Lawrence River to the Gulf of Mexico,—with its seventy millions of people, has grown from these five little colonies, which, at first, could scarcely raise food enough to keep their people from starving.

QUESTIONS.

1. Who was Marco Polo? Give an account of his travels. Of his book.
2. In what way did the compass and astrolabe prove useful to sailors?
3. Who first thought of sailing westward to reach India? Tell about Columbus theory and the difficulties he met with in trying to get ships.
4. Give an account of Columbus' first voyage and discovery of America.
5. How many voyages did Columbus make? When and under what circumstances did he die?
6. When did the Cabots make their voyages? What did they discover? What nation was benefited by their labors?
7. After what discoverer was this continent named? Who named it?
8. Who went in search of a wonderful fountain, and discovered Florida? What nation based its claim to a part of North America on that discovery?
9. Who discovered the Pacific Ocean?
10. What voyages to America were made under the authority of the King of France? Why were the claims of France to territory unjust?
11. Who was De Narvaez? What did he do? Give an account of De Soto's expedition.
12. What object had the early explorers in view, in coming to the New World?
13. What nation first attempted to make settlements in America? What was the result of those attempts?
14. Who was Menendez, and where did he plant a colony? What was the name of the town he founded?
15. Name the two oldest towns within the present limits of our country.
16. Give some account of the English explorers—Frobisher, Drake, Gilbert.
17. Who was Raleigh? What attempts did he make to found colonies? What was the only result of his efforts?
18. What were the limits of Virginia? What companies received permission to settle the country?
19. Where was the first permanent English settlement made?—the second?
20. Who was Henry Hudson, and what did he do?
21. Name the different settlements within the present limits of the United States one hundred and twenty-eight years after the discovery by Columbus.

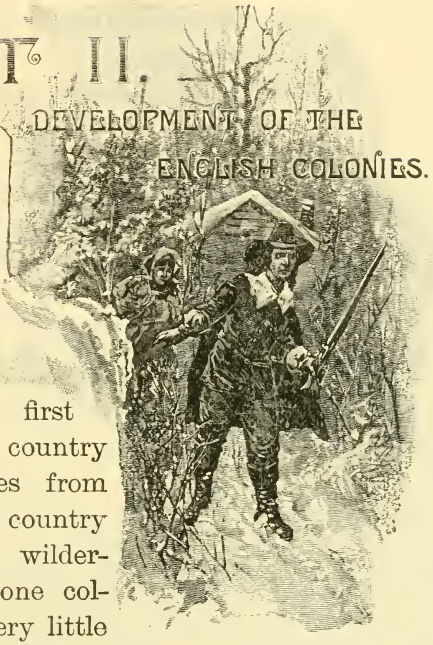
FOR READING OR RECITATION.

Columbus.—LOWELL.
Norembega.—WHITTIER.
Sir Humphrey Gilbert.—LONGFELLOW.

PART II.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES.

FROM 1607 TO 1775



FIRST Settlements. — The first settlements in this country were at long distances from each other, and the country between them was a wilderness. The people in one colony, therefore, knew very little about what was going on in the others.

Each colony had its own history, its own ideas, and its own way of managing its affairs. Until we come to the time when all the colonies began to act together, we must tell about them separately.

VIRGINIA.

Character of the Colonists.—The first settlers at Jamestown were not the kind of men likely to get along in a new country. They were gentlemen who had lost their

fortunes, and had come to America thinking that here they could gain riches without labor. Strange stories must have been told by the agents of the London Company to induce such people to cross the ocean.

SMITH TRADING WITH THE INDIANS.

Few of the colonists had ever done any hard work, and most of them were unwilling to learn. If there had not been one man of wisdom and energy among these helpless people, they would soon have starved to death.

Captain John Smith had been a great traveler, and had learned how to get along with all sorts of people. In their distress, the colonists turned to him as their leader,

and his way of managing their affairs soon showed that he was the right man for the position.

Smith traded with the Indians and obtained a supply of food. He then forced the settlers to build themselves houses, to erect a fort, and to plant corn. He marked out for each man his daily labor, and saw that it was performed. The secret of his being able to do all this was, that he would give no food to any one who would not work.

Every thing went on well while Smith remained at Jamestown. He was, however, fond of wandering about in the new country, and when he was away the colonists would spend their time in idleness, and neglect matters generally.

On one occasion, Smith was captured by the Indians. He was taken before the great Indian king Powhatan (pow hă tăn′), and condemned to die. Just as the death-blow was about to fall, Powhatan's daughter, Pocahontas (pō kă hŏn′ tăs), rushed forward and begged that his life might be spared. Smith was released and sent back with an escort to Jamestown.

Pocahontas became the friend of the whites, and afterward married a young Englishman named John Rolfe.

Smith explored the coast, and made maps of the country which were of great service in explaining to the people of England about the new world.

The Starving Time.—About two years after the settlement of Jamestown (1609), Smith was badly wounded by an explosion of gunpowder and returned to England.

His departure was unfortunate for the new settlement; for the colonists, left to themselves, gave up work altogether, and during the following winter about four hundred of them died of starvation.

In the spring, the sixty who were left alive embarked for England, but as they were about to sail Lord Delaware arrived with several ship-loads of new colonists and plenty of food. They turned back with their friends, and so the colony was saved.

After that, the settlers learned to be more industrious, and were no longer threatened with starvation. The land was now divided up among them, and each settler was given a farm of his own, and he did the best he could to raise good crops. This proved to be much better than the old way of working together and sharing every thing in common.

Besides food, the colonists raised large crops of tobacco. The people of Europe had adopted the Indian custom of smoking, and were willing to pay a large price for all the tobacco the colonists could send them. There was at that time very little money in the colony, and the value of all services and of all kinds of goods was reckoned in pounds of tobacco.

When the London Company first sent out a number of young women as wives for the colonists, they charged one hundred pounds of tobacco as passage-money for each; but the colonists were so anxious to get wives, that they gladly offered as much as one hundred and fifty pounds. As soon as the colonists had wives, they

became happy and contented and gave up all thought of leaving America.

Slavery.—Some years afterward (1619), a Dutch ship landed twenty negroes at Jamestown, and these were sold as slaves to the colonists. This was the beginning of negro slavery in America. The labor of the negroes was found very profitable, and large numbers were brought into the country.

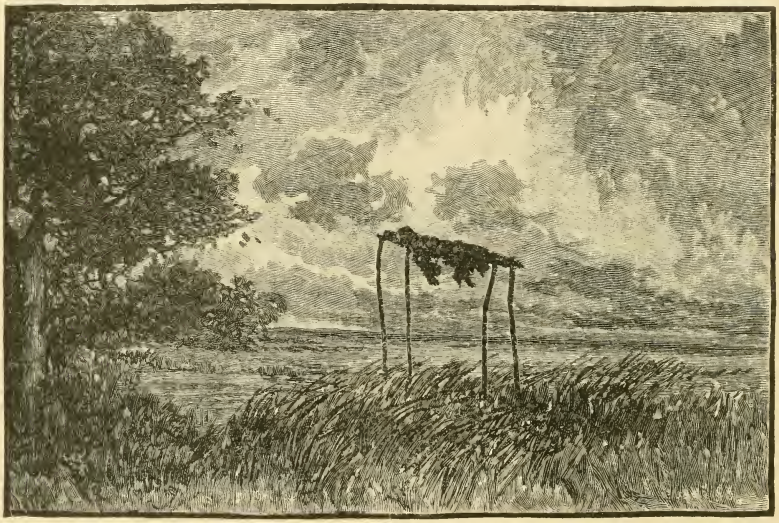
When Sir George Yeardley (yeerd'lў) became governor, he granted the colonists (1619) the right to choose some of their own number to help him make laws. The body of law-makers thus chosen was the first of the kind in America. It was called the House of Burgesses.

Growth of the Colony.—Under good laws the colony so prospered, that fifteen years after the first settlement at Jamestown there were (1622) four thousand white people in Virginia, and plantations extended along both sides of the James River for more than one hundred and fifty miles.

The Indian War.—The Indians being now afraid that they would lose their lands if the colonists kept coming, decided to kill all the white people in the colony. So they planned and made (1622) a furious attack upon the scattered settlements, and in one day killed more than three hundred men, women, and children.

A terrible war followed, in which the savages were severely punished. After that, there was peace for more than twenty years. But the Indians were still jealous of the growing power of the whites, and were not willing to

give up their lands. Another war took place (1644), and many settlers were killed; but the result was disastrous to the Indian tribes, and they were driven far back into the wilderness.

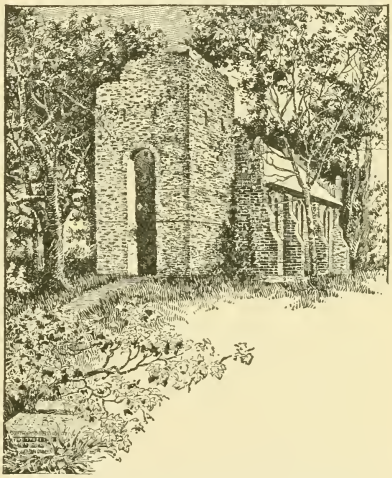


AN INDIAN GRAVE.

Oppression of the Colony.—If England had allowed the Virginia colonists to manage their own affairs and to go on in their own way, all would have been well. But the people of the mother country were too anxious to make money, and seemed to think that the colonies had no rights whatever. As a result of this selfish policy, many unwise laws had been made which the colonists

did not like. Some of these laws interfered with their personal freedom, while others almost destroyed their trade. All this caused much distress and hard feeling on the part of the colonists. The king finally rid himself of all trouble by giving the whole colony to Lords Culpepper and Arlington for a period of thirty-one years.

Bacon's Rebellion. — A governor named Berkeley (bĕrk'lĭ) was sent out to Virginia, who by his tyranny and dishonesty nearly ruined the colony. Once the Indians threatened the colony, when Berkeley, who had a profitable trade of his own with them, and feared to lose it, refused to send a force against them; nor would he permit the colonists to defend themselves.



THE OLD CHURCH TOWER OF JAMESTOWN.
(Church itself rebuilt in 1907.)

The people then took matters into their own hands, and under a young leader named Nathaniel Bacon, drove away the hostile Indians. Bacon and his followers were declared traitors by Berkeley, and a civil war followed. During these troubles, Jamestown was burned.

Bacon had almost succeeded in gaining control, when he suddenly died. Berkeley, as soon as he got back into

power again, revenged himself by hanging twenty of the leading men who had opposed him.

This last wicked act was too much even for the king. He at once recalled Berkeley, and took control of the colony himself. For the next hundred years, it was ruled by royal governors; and in spite of many difficulties continued to grow and prosper.

NEW YORK.

The Dutch in New Netherland.—Only a few years after the settlement of Jamestown, some Dutch traders landed (1613) where New York City now stands, and after building a fort and a few small houses, began to buy furs from the Indians. This settlement was called New Amsterdam.

In a short time a company of traders, pushing out in various directions from New Amsterdam, had built forts and established trading stations on the Hudson, Connecticut, and Delaware rivers. The Dutch laid claim to all this region, and gave to it the name of New Netherland.

The Dutch West India Company a few years later secured a charter for all this territory, and at once began to colonize it. Large numbers of colonists were sent out from Holland, and settled near Albany and at several points on Long Island. A governor, named Peter Minuit, afterward came over (1626) to govern the colony, and purchased the whole island of Manhattan from the Indians for trinkets valued at about twenty-four dollars.

THE ENGLISH LANDING AT NEW AMSTERDAM.

The settlers worked hard, lived simply, and for a time prospered. New neighbors, however, soon caused them trouble, and obliged them to defend their rights in their new home.

The Dutch Governors.—Under its four Dutch governors, the colony rapidly increased in numbers and in wealth. The last and best of these governors was Peter Stuyvesant (stī′vĕ sănt). Under his rule, peace was made with the Indians, the English colonies at the east became friendly, and the Swedish settlers on the Delaware were brought under Dutch sway.

Although Stuyvesant had arranged the boundaries of New Netherland with his English neighbors, the English king, Charles II., spoiled all the good governor's plans by giving the territory to his brother, the Duke of York.

New Amsterdam becomes New York (1664).—Only a few months afterward, an English fleet entered the harbor of New Amsterdam and took possession. Stuyvesant tried to rouse the Dutch settlers to resistance. His people, however, had become tired of him and of Dutch laws, and were quite ready for a change. He was compelled, therefore, to surrender, and so New Amsterdam became New York. During the same year all the other Dutch possessions in the new world were given up to the English.

English Rule.—The reason why the Dutch colonists were so willing to submit to the English, was that they had heard a great deal about English freedom. They soon found out their mistake, however, and regretted

that they had not obeyed their old governor and driven the ships away.

Heavy taxes were imposed on the colonists, but they were not permitted to take any part in making their own laws. In a war between England and Holland, some years later (1673), a Dutch fleet captured New York, and restored the old laws and the old name of New Amsterdam; but when the war was over, the colony was again surrendered to the English.

Leisler's (līs'lerz) **Rebellion.**—Many disputes arose between the Dutch people and their English governors. On one occasion the governor was driven away, and a man named Jacob Leisler was chosen ruler. The English soon sent out a new governor named Sloughter (slaw'ter), who caused Leisler to be tried for treason and hanged.

Oppression of the Colony.—The severe treatment which the colonists received at the hands of their governors aroused in them a desire for liberty, and only an opportunity was needed to lead them to get rid of their unjust rulers altogether.

MASSACHUSETTS.

We must now go back to the early part of the century in which the settlement at Jamestown was made, and tell about some of the other events that took place in the new world.

You remember that two companies, the London Company and the Plymouth Company, were given land by

the King of England. While the London Company was striving to plant a colony in southern Virginia, the other Company was inclined to wait and see whether such an attempt would prove successful.

The Plymouth Company. — Captain Smith had returned to England with his maps and given a good account of the part of the country belonging to the Plymouth Company, which he called New England. That Company then decided to send out colonists as soon as possible. The king gave it a new charter, and the right to make laws for all the colonies that might thereafter be planted in New England.

The Pilgrims. — But before the Plymouth Company was ready to send out colonists, a band of Puritans sailed in the Mayflower for the coast of New England. These Puritans, or Pilgrims as they are sometimes called, were people who had been harshly treated in England because of their religious views, which differed from those of the king and the people in power. Their idea in coming to the new world was to find a place where they could worship God in their own way, without being obliged to observe the forms of the English Church.

The departure of the Mayflower was watched with great interest by the friends of the daring little band who so boldly sought for religious liberty; and many families of Puritans made ready to go to the new country, should the success of those going first make it prudent.

The Landing of the Pilgrims (1620).—After a long voyage, the Mayflower reached the coast of New England

in midwinter, and the Pilgrims landed upon a shore covered with snow. Plymouth was the name given to the first settlement of these brave colonists.

Although the winter proved a mild one, the hardships of the settlers were very great. Before spring, the little band of one hundred and two had been reduced by cold, famine, and disease to less than sixty. Still the colony struggled on.

The Indians were friendly, and their king, Massasoit (măs′sā soit), made a treaty of friendship with the settlers which remained unbroken as long as he lived. From him they learned the art of raising Indian corn. Had it not been for the friendship thus shown them, all the colonists would have perished.

Instead of wasting time in looking for gold, the Pilgrims built houses, planted corn, and tried to make good homes for themselves and their children. They lived in a quiet, orderly, and religious way. They made their own laws, chose their own governors, and from the first were a free people.

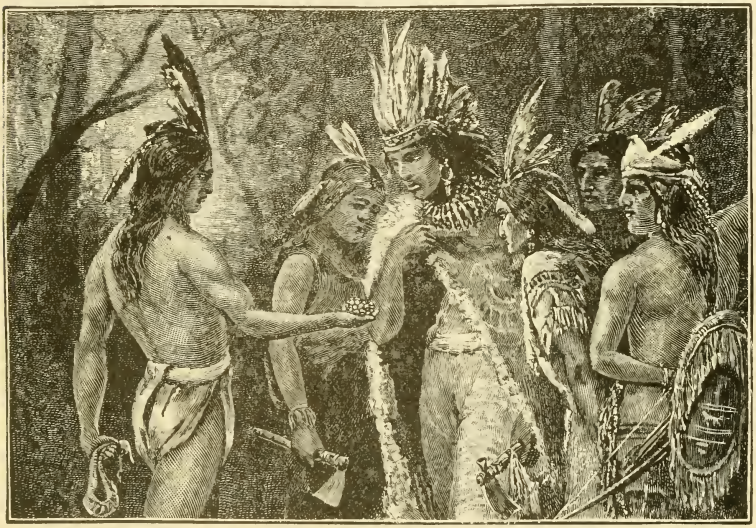
In spite of their hard work and careful living, however, the colonists at Plymouth suffered great hardships. The climate was severe, and the amount of corn raised the first year was not enough to keep them from actual hunger. Luckily the fishing was good, and clams were plentiful, so they had something to eat.

After sharing every thing with one another for a time, as the Virginians had done, they divided up their land, and each man then worked for his own family. This

PURITANS ON THE WAY TO CHURCH.

was found to be a far better plan, and the colony henceforth grew slowly but steadily in prosperity.

The year after the settlement was made, the Narragansett (năr rȧ găn′sĕt) Indians sent Governor Bradford a bundle of arrows tied together with a snake-skin, as a threat that they would make war upon the strangers.



CANONICUS RECEIVING THE POWDER AND BULLETS FROM GOVERNOR BRADFORD.

Governor Bradford sent back the snake-skin filled with powder and bullets, and Canonicus (ka nŏn′ĭ kŭs), chief of the Narragansetts, finding that the white people were ready for him, decided to remain at peace.

Massachusetts Bay Colony (1629).—Nine years after the settlement at Plymouth, five ship-loads of colonists

were brought out by John Endicott and landed at Salem and Charlestown. The king had given to Endicott and five others the power to make laws. But these men wisely thought that the people ought to govern themselves, and so from the first the colony was permitted to manage its own affairs.

During the next year (1630), a thousand more people came over with John Winthrop, and Dorchester, Boston, and other places on Massachusetts Bay were founded.

All of these later settlements were soon afterward united under the name of the Massachusetts Bay Colony.

King Philip's War.—For many years colonists had been coming over in great numbers, and as white settlements were extended back into the country, the Indians were driven farther and farther into the wilderness. On the death of Massasoit, his son Philip, a man of great wisdom and courage, became king of his tribe. King Philip had long thought over the wrongs of his people. He feared, if settlers kept coming, that his tribe would in the end be destroyed. He therefore determined to make war upon the settlements.

Atrocities of the Indians.—King Philip won over the Narragansetts and some smaller tribes to join him in his purpose. The war was then begun with savage fury. Settlers were everywhere attacked, their houses burned, their cattle killed, and their crops destroyed. Sometimes the savages, watching their opportunity, would swoop down upon a settlement, in the absence of the men, and

cruelly butcher the women and children. To protect themselves, men carried arms wherever they went. Women and children had to be guarded on the way to church, and during the service armed sentries were posted outside of the church that the people inside might not be surprised and massacred. The Indians, by their atrocities, struck terror through all New England. At last the white people made up their minds that they must destroy the Indians, or be destroyed themselves.

The Indian Power Broken. — During the winter a large body of men was organized, and the Indians were followed to their hiding-place in a swamp, where, after a desperate battle, not less than a thousand of them were slain. After this the Indians were too weak to fight much, but parties of them prowled around villages and farms throughout New England, murdering whole families whenever they found them off their guard. The white people now hunted their savage foes like wild animals. Philip and some of his followers were for months chased from place to place. Finally, he fled to Mount Hope, in Rhode Island, where, in an attack, he was killed by one of his own tribe, who was friendly to the whites.

Effect of the War.—The death of Philip brought the conflict to an end, but the devastation caused by it was wide-spread, and its effects were felt by the colonists long years afterward.

Character of the Colonists.—The people of Massachusetts Bay Colony were mostly Puritans, and believed in the union of civil and church government. They had

come to America to enjoy religious freedom, but they did not wish to have people of different religious views come to live with them. To protect themselves in their religion, they drove Quakers and others not believing as they did from the colony, and allowed no one to vote who was not a member of their Church.

Though narrow-minded in this respect, still they were a noble people. They were stern in manner, strict in morals, and frugal and temperate in their habits. Their love of education was second only to their love of religion. Schools were early established in every settlement, and only eighteen years after the first landing on the bleak shore at Plymouth, the great college of Harvard had been founded.

Union of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay Colonies.—A union of the colonies of Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay was formed in 1692, under the name of Massachusetts.

NEW JERSEY.

When King Charles II. gave New Netherland to his brother, the Duke of York, that territory included what is now known as the State of New Jersey. The Duke, in turn, made a grant of New Jersey to two English noblemen—Lords Berkeley and Carteret.

A few trading posts had already been established by the Dutch; but the new owners brought to the colony a number of settlers from New York and from Massachusetts Bay, and an English settlement was made at

Elizabethtown (1664). Sir Philip Carteret, a brother of Lord Carteret, was appointed governor.

The colony grew rapidly, and in a few years flourishing settlements had sprung up at Newark, Middletown, Freehold, and Shrewsbury.

Troubles with New York.—From the first, a spirit of opposition was shown by the royal governor of New York, who thought that a large share of the revenue of his province would be drawn away by the new colony. He made many efforts to bring it under his control, but each time was stoutly resisted by Lord Carteret. This, with a bitter political quarrel which became wide-spread among the people, created a feeling of unrest, and for a long time checked the prosperity of the colony.

Division of New Jersey.—A dispute arising between the owners, the territory of New Jersey was divided (1677) into two parts by a line running north and south. These two parts were named East Jersey and West Jersey. The former went to Lord Carteret and the latter to Lord Berkeley.

Both afterward came into the possession of a company of Quakers, who established a settlement for their people at Burlington, on the Delaware.

Dissatisfaction of the Colonists.—The people suffered much on account of the many changes in their government. They became somewhat better off, however, when the queen reunited both East and West Jersey (1702) and gave the control to the governor of New York: yet they were not altogether satisfied.

After ten years' delay over a petition for a separate governor, the wish of the people was granted (1738). From that time forward there were no further troubles for the colony.

MARYLAND.

Lord Baltimore. — A settlement in the present State of Maryland was made at St. Mary's (1634) by English Catholics, under the leadership of Lord Baltimore. The Catholics were treated as severely in England at that time as were the Puritans, and for that reason many of them sought a refuge in America.

Religious Freedom.—The people from the outset were given the right to make their own laws, and remembering the cause of their troubles in England, they passed (1649) an act giving full civil and religious freedom to every one coming to the colony. This was very different from the course adopted by the Puritans in Massachusetts.

Clayborne's Rebellion. — Early in the history of the colony, certain people in Virginia laid claim to a portion of Maryland. To enforce this claim war was begun by a body of Virginians, under a leader named Clayborne; but he and his followers were routed in the first contest. Ten years afterward, Clayborne returned at the head of a larger force, drove out the governor, and held control of the colony for a brief period. Much confusion followed, but Clayborne was finally overthrown and obliged to flee for his life.

Civil Troubles.—Many Protestants came into the colony, but they did not like the Catholics any the better on account of their fair laws. As soon as they were in the majority, they took control of the government, and passed laws forbidding Catholics to vote.

Civil War.—A civil war followed (1691), and finally the King of England took away the rights of the Baltimores and made the colony a royal province. These rights were restored (1715) after more than twenty years, and religious freedom was once more allowed to all.

RHODE ISLAND.

Roger Williams.—You will remember that no one was permitted to remain in the settlements on Massachusetts Bay whose religious opinions did not agree with those of the Puritans. One of the men driven away from the colony was Roger Williams, a young Salem minister. He was an outcast in the wilderness, in the depths of winter, until Massasoit, the Indian friend of the white people, received him and gave him shelter. In the following spring, he made his way to Rhode Island, where Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, received him as a brother.

Williams' Views.—Perhaps you may wonder why the Indians were so friendly to a man whom the white people had thus driven away. They knew that he was a good man who had never wronged any of their people; and

it was on this account that they were now so ready to befriend him. One of the reasons for sending Williams into exile was because he said that the colonists had no right to take the land of the Indians unless they paid for it. The Puritans, however, seemed to think that the Indians had nothing to say in the matter.

Williams said also that every man ought to be allowed to vote, no matter in what way he chose to worship God. As Williams was a minister, the Puritans thought that if he were to continue to teach such dangerous views as these, the colony would be ruined.

Governor Winthrop's Kindness.—Governor Winthrop was a friend to the young minister, and gave him a letter saying that he was a good man and asking help for him. The governor knew that this letter would save from trouble those who should treat him kindly.

There were many people in the colony who believed in these opinions of Roger Williams, and were even ready to follow him into exile.

The Providence Plantation.—Williams received from Canonicus a large tract of land, on which he with five companions settled (1636) Providence Plantation. Soon after, a number of families followed from Massachusetts Bay Colony, and though the new settlement was for a time weak in numbers, it finally prospered.

The Rhode Island Plantation.—Another band of exiles came, about two years afterward, and buying a small island from the Narragansetts, settled (1638) Rhode Island Plantation. That colony also prospered.

The Charter of the Combined Colonies.—About eight years after the settlement of Providence, Williams went to England, and obtained (1644) a charter uniting the two Plantations.

Religious Freedom.—One of the first things the people did on receiving their charter, was to make a law allowing every one to worship God in his own way. The new colony now became a safe home for all who were ill-treated elsewhere.

CONNECTICUT.

Connecticut Colony (1633-'36).—At about the same time that Rhode Island was settled, parties from Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay were moving westward to the rich valley of Connecticut. Some of them settled Windsor, Hartford, and Wethersfield, and these settlements were shortly afterward united under the name of the Connecticut Colony.

As the land occupied by the new colony was claimed by the Dutch, the settlers had to fortify their homes against them as well as against the native Indians.

The Pequod War.—One of the Indian tribes, the Pequods, watched the recent advance of the white settlers with angry feelings, for they saw that they would soon lose their hunting-grounds. They resolved to destroy the new settlements, and tried to get the Narragansetts to join them in a war against the whites.

An Appeal to Roger Williams.—When the Governor of Massachusetts learned of these warlike preparations, he appealed to Roger Williams to help keep the Narragansetts from joining in the war. That noble man, forgetting all about his cruel banishment, set out for the

INDIAN ATTACK ON A SETTLEMENT.

Indian settlements, on a stormy winter's night, to do as the governor wished. Arriving at the wigwam of the king, he found that a favorable reply was about to be given to the Pequod messengers, but, after much pleading, he finally persuaded the Narragansetts to remain at peace.

The First Bloodshed.—The Pequods then began the war alone and made an attack (1637) upon the white

people, killing thirty of them. This savage deed nerved the colonists to vengeance. Captain Mason was now sent with a small band of settlers to punish them.

Destruction of the Pequods.—Finding the Indians encamped on the Mystic River, he resolved to attack them at night. Mason set fire to their camp and then surrounded it with his men. As the savages rushed from their burning wigwams, they were met with a deadly fire from Mason and his band. Hardly a Pequod escaped; the tribe was almost completely destroyed. After such a terrible lesson, the other tribes remained at peace for nearly forty years.

The New Haven Colony.—The New Haven Colony was settled (1638), the year after the Pequod war, by a large number of wealthy families from London.

The New England League.—The Pequod war taught the New England people a valuable lesson. They learned from it how weak each colony was alone, and what great perils really beset them. Any one of these colonies, they saw, might easily be overcome in a single night by a combined attack of the Indians and the Dutch. A union or league of the New England colonies was therefore formed for a common defense. The Rhode Island and the Providence settlements, however, were not admitted into this union, because the Plymouth Colony claimed that its charter covered their territory.

This was the first Union of Colonies in America; and, in later years, we shall see how this plan was again resorted to when their liberties were in danger.

Union of the Connecticut Colonies.—The two colonies were afterward united (1662), and received a very liberal charter from the king. This charter was highly prized by the people of the Connecticut Colony, for it gave them all the rights and liberties of English citizens.

The Charter Concealed.—Twenty years later, the king of England made up his mind that the colonies had too much freedom, and resolved to take the control of them into his own hands. He made the whole of New England one royal province, and sent out a tyrant to govern it. The royal governor came to Hartford (1687) in great pomp and demanded the charter of the colony; but it has been said that the precious paper was carried off and hidden away in the hollow trunk of an oak-tree, long known as the Charter Oak, where it remained for nearly three years. After a new king came to the English throne, the charter was brought from its hiding-place, and the colony was allowed once more to enjoy its freedom.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

First Settlements.—Shortly after the settlement of Plymouth, two men named Gorges and Mason, secured a patent for a large tract of country lying between the Merrimac and Kennebec rivers. They brought two companies of colonists from England, and settled them at Portsmouth and Dover. These settlements were feeble and made so little progress that for many years they continued to be nothing more than fishing and trading

stations. A few years later, more flourishing settlements were made along the coast of Maine.

The Charter Withdrawn.—The country thus occupied was for a long time the subject of bitter dispute, so much so that the charter was withdrawn and the territory divided. The part now known as New Hampshire was given to Mason, while Gorges received the part now comprised within the State of Maine.

Changes in Government.—The whole region was afterward (1641) taken by Massachusetts. Forty years later New Hampshire became a royal province and continued such for a period of ten years. It then once more came under the control of Massachusetts, until (1741) it became an independent colony. Maine, however, continued an unbroken connection with Massachusetts down to the early part of the present century (1820), when it became a separate State.

Difficulties of the Colony.—The early settlers of New Hampshire had many difficulties to contend with. The soil was poor and unproductive, and for many winters food was very scarce. The titles to their lands were for a long time insecure, owing to the many changes in the government of the colony. Their nearness to Canada brought them often into collision with the French, while the smallness of their settlements and their remoteness from each other, laid them open to frequent attacks by the Indians. Indeed, during King Philip's War, the whole region was overrun by the savages, who destroyed many towns and settlements, and murdered hundreds of the settlers.

DELAWARE.

The first colony in Delaware was established (1631) by the Dutch, near Cape Henlopen. It had a brief existence; for three years after its settlement, it was attacked and destroyed by the Indians, not a soul escaping to tell the story.

Settlement of New Sweden. — A colony of Swedes and Finns, under Peter Min'u it, made a settlement (1639) and built a fort on Chris ti an'a Creek, near the place where the city of Wilmington now stands. The colonists bought land of the Indians on the west side of the Delaware River, the latter taking articles of merchandise in payment for it. They named the country New Sweden.

The new colonists were a simple-minded, religious, and thrifty people. They soon became contented and happy in their new homes, and built up a flourishing trade with the Indians and the colonies near by.

Conquered by the Dutch. — The Dutch now became jealous of their new neighbors, and disputed their right to settle in that territory, claiming all the lands on the Delaware for themselves, by right of discovery and previous settlement. Much trouble consequently followed. Finally, Peter Stuyvesant, who was then governor of New Netherland, sent a large force of soldiers from New Amsterdam (1655), which subdued the Swedish colony and brought it under Dutch rule.

Captured by the English. — When the Duke of York took New Netherland (1664), Delaware also came into

his possession. The duke made a grant of the colony to William Penn (1682), who at once merged it in his larger colony of Pennsylvania, of which it remained a part for twenty years. The people of Delaware then (1703) received the right to choose a separate legislature of their own, but still continued under the control of Pennsylvania. They afterward declared their independence of Pennsylvania and formed a government for themselves.

PENNSYLVANIA.

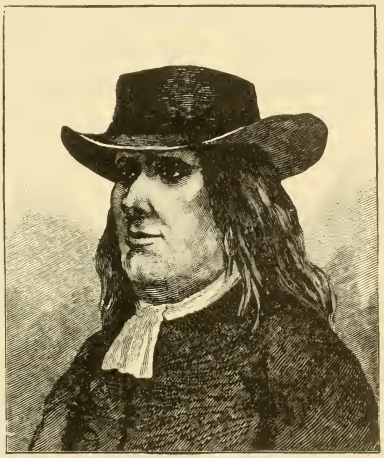
William Penn.—The territory west of the Delaware River was granted to William Penn by the English king, Charles II., in payment of a large debt due his father.

William Penn was a member of the Society of Friends, or Quakers, as they are sometimes called. The Quakers in England, at that time, were persecuted for their belief, as cruelly as had been the Puritans and the Catholics at an earlier period.

In securing this grant of land in America, Penn's purpose was to found there a colony as a refuge for his people, where they could worship God as they pleased, without fear or restraint.

First Settlement.—The Quakers had suffered much for conscience sake, and now that a way of escape was opened to them, were ready to flock to the new world in great numbers. During the first year (1682), two thousand of them came over and made their homes

along the Delaware, some in rude huts, and others in caves cut in the banks of the river. Penn himself came over the following year (1683), and purchased from the Swedes a broad strip of land at the junction of the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, on which he proceeded to lay out the city of Philadelphia. About this time, he secured control of the Colony of Delaware, which was thereafter, for more than twenty years, governed as part of Pennsylvania.

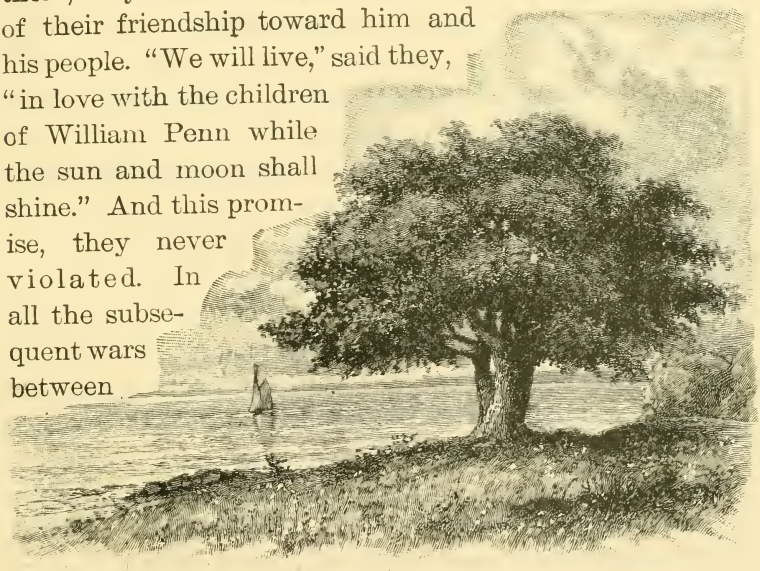


WILLIAM PENN.

The Quakers and the Indians. — We have seen what a constant source of trouble the Indians proved to be to the people of the Massachusetts and the Connecticut colonies. When the Quakers made their settlement in Pennsylvania, they too found a fierce tribe of savages occupying the country; but they had no such trouble with them as had the settlers in the New England colonies. The Quakers were an honest, religious, and peaceful people, and from the first treated the Indians kindly, and dealt with them fairly. The result was that they were never threatened with terrible massacres and had to wage no bloody wars.

Penn's Treaty with the Indians.—Soon after his arrival, Penn invited the leading Indian chiefs to meet him for a friendly talk. He and a few of the settlers met them under a great elm-tree, on the spot where his monument now stands in Philadelphia. He told the dusky savages that the white people had come to live among them as brothers, in peace and friendship, and promised to pay them for all land which the colonists should occupy.

The Indians were pleased with the Quakers and called them brave men, because they did not come to the meeting with guns in their hands. When presents were given them, they were filled with joy, and in turn assured Penn of their friendship toward him and his people. "We will live," said they, "in love with the children of William Penn while the sun and moon shall shine." And this promise, they never violated. In all the subsequent wars between



PENN'S TREATY TREE.

the white and the red men, the latter always spared the Quakers.

Government of the Colony.—Instead of governing his province himself, as he had power to do, Penn called an assembly of the people to make laws, and the colony at once became a free and happy one. He retained a few rights as proprietor, the most important of which was the appointment of the governor. After Penn's death, his heirs continued to exercise this right until it was purchased (1779) of them by the State of Pennsylvania.

Growth of the Colony.—The Quaker settlement grew rapidly from the beginning, both in numbers and in wealth. Its fame spread all over Europe, and a large band of settlers from Germany were among the first to come, and making a settlement near Philadelphia, called it Germantown. Philadelphia itself became, in a few years, one of the largest and most prosperous of the colonial cities.

THE CAROLINAS.

Early Settlements.—The Virginia Colony increased so rapidly that forty years after the settlement at Jamestown, the whole country bordering on the Atlantic was occupied by plantations and settlements.

As fresh settlers came, some went far back into the wilderness; while others, keeping to the sea-coast, struck southward, toward the great unoccupied country beyond the Virginia border. In this way, many of the

poorer planters and laborers of the Virginia Colony, sometimes singly and sometimes in companies, drifted into that wild region (1651) and made rude homes for themselves along the banks of the Chowan River.

The Albemarle Colony.—A little later, enterprising emigrants from other parts were attracted to the new country, many coming from New England, and some from the Bermuda Islands. Most of these purchased land of the Indians and settled at the mouth of the Cape Fear River. A number of scattered settlements had thus sprung up (1653), and the country occupied by them received the name of Albemarle. This was the beginning of the present State of North Carolina.

Twelve years after the first settlement (1663), King Charles II., who we remember had given away a good deal of land in America, made a grant of this whole region, which, in his own honor, he called Carolina, to eight of his favorite courtiers.

The Plans of the Proprietors.—These proprietors formed a grand scheme for dividing the country into provinces, each of which was to be governed by a great Lord, called a Landgrave. Under these were to be several orders of nobility, and beneath these still knights, freemen, and slaves. The colonists could not all be nobles, and none were willing to be slaves. Accordingly the foolish scheme, so ill suited to a new country, where every man had to work hard for a living, came to nothing. The Albemarle colonists only laughed at it and proceeded to set up a government of their own.

The Carteret Colony.—Seven years later (1670), the proprietors sent a company of emigrants from England, who made a settlement at Port Royal, where Ribaut, a hundred years before, had made an unsuccessful attempt to plant a colony. After living there awhile, they removed to a more favorable situation, at the mouth of the Ashley River, where they founded the present city of Charleston. This was called the Carteret Colony; and Charleston, also named after Charles II., was the first permament settlement in South Carolina.

Character of the Colonists.—The earlier settlers were largely composed of rough and lawless adventurers, who were the cause of a great deal of trouble and discord in the colony. Bands of pirates infested the coasts for years, encouraged and often aided, in their work, by the colonists. But a marked change in the character of the colony took place when a better class of settlers began to come. These were the Huguenots, or French Protestants, who were persecuted at home and fled to Carolina in great numbers. These people were refined, intelligent, and industrious, and formed a valuable accession to the colony. Many of the Dutch came from New York, small companies of settlers came from other colonies, and soon the country filled up with a mixed, but desirable, population.

Government of the Colony.—The people of the Carolina colonies had the making of their own laws, and consequently enjoyed a large degree of freedom. Religious toleration was early guaranteed to all. Like all the

other colonies, Carolina had much trouble with its governors, many of whom were not only tyrannical, but greedy and dishonest as well.

The proprietors experienced so much difficulty in trying to rule the Carolina colonists, that at length they gave up in despair and surrendered their rights to the king, who divided (1729) the territory into two royal provinces — North Carolina and South Carolina.

GEORGIA.

Georgia, the last of the colonies founded (1733), was so named in honor of the English king, George the Second.

It was the custom in England at that time, to imprison merchants who failed in business, and persons who, for any reason, could not pay their debts.

These unfortunate people were often confined in filthy jails for many years, and were subjected to the most brutal and inhuman treatment.

James Oglethorpe (ō′gl‡ thôrp), an English officer, and a kind and benevolent man, took great interest in these people, and did much to lessen the misery of their condition. He formed the idea of founding in America a colony where not only they, but the poor and distressed of all nations, might have an opportunity of redeeming themselves and bettering their fortunes.

The first Settlement. — Oglethorpe laid his plans before the king and received from him a grant of the

unoccupied country lying between the Carolinas and the Spanish colony in Florida.

He then obtained the release of a large number of these debtors, and sailing with them to America, made a settlement at Savannah. The land was divided among the settlers, houses were built, a fort was erected for defense, and the people worked with so much energy and spirit that rapid progress was made, and Savannah, in a short time, became a pretty and flourishing town. Imitating the example of William Penn, Oglethorpe by kindness soon won the good-will of the neighboring Indians and entered into friendly treaties with them.

The story of the success of this colony soon spread, and fresh colonists, among them many Scotch and German laborers, poured in from all parts of Europe.

Troubles with the Spaniards. — The Spaniards who claimed the territory occupied by the new colony, were not disposed to allow the English settlements to extend southward without a struggle. A long and angry dispute followed the settlement of the colony; and when war broke out between England and Spain, Oglethorpe, anticipating a Spanish attack, promptly invaded Florida (1740) and laid siege to St. Augustine. But his plans, though well laid, miscarried from the start, and he was forced to return to Georgia with a broken and discouraged army. Two years later, a large Spanish force attempted to destroy the Georgia colony, but it was met with such determined resistance by Oglethorpe and his small army, that, after one or two encounters,

the Spaniards fled in a panic to their ships and the colony was saved.

Government of the Colony. — By the charter of the colony, the settlers were guaranteed all the rights and privileges of Englishmen. Freedom of religion was granted to all, except Catholics.

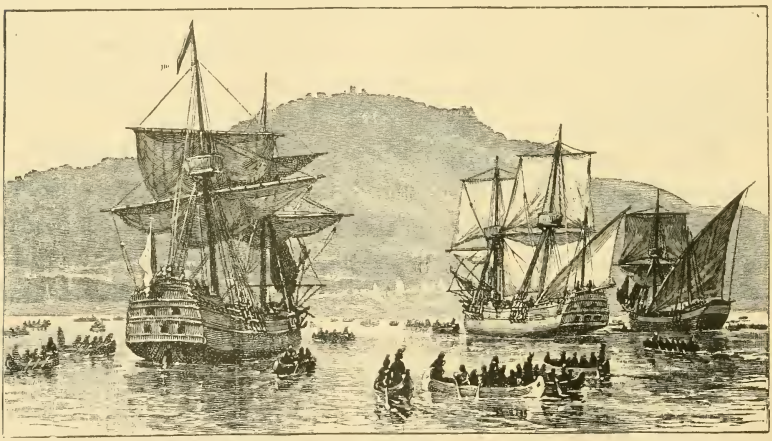
Each man held his land under a promise to render military service when called on. The importation of rum was strictly forbidden, and no slaves were, under any circumstances, to be brought into the colony. But after a while, the people complained that they could not till their lands in so warm a climate without slaves, and slavery was accordingly introduced seven years after the first settlement.

Many laws and regulations were made which displeased the colonists and bred discontent. The trustees, at last, finding the colony hard to manage, surrendered the charter, and Georgia became (1752) a royal province.

You have now read the history of the origin and development of the thirteen English colonies. There is a great deal more to be told about them, but before we proceed with our story let us commit their names to memory in the order in which they were founded. They are as follows: — 1. VIRGINIA; 2. NEW YORK; 3. NEW JERSEY; 4. MASSACHUSETTS; 5. NEW HAMPSHIRE; 6. MARYLAND; 7. CONNECTICUT; 8. RHODE ISLAND; 9. DELAWARE; 10. PENNSYLVANIA; 11. NORTH CAROLINA; 12. SOUTH CAROLINA; 13. GEORGIA.

THE FRENCH IN NORTH AMERICA.

From the date of the first settlement in Virginia (1607), to the landing of Oglethorpe in Georgia (1732), was a period of one hundred and twenty-five years. During that time, England had been steadily planting settlements along the Atlantic coast, until now a chain of rich and prosperous English colonies extended from New Hampshire southward for a distance of a thousand miles.



CARTIER LANDING AT MONTREAL.

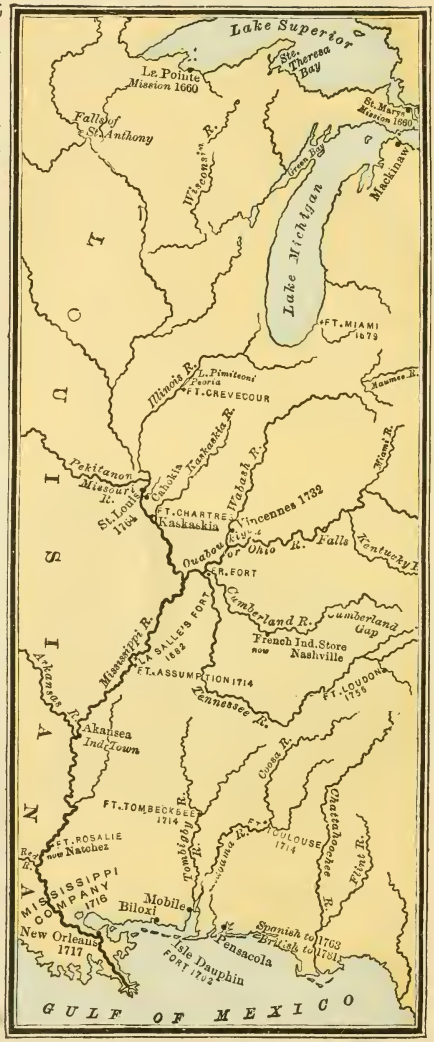
But while the English were planting these colonies along the coast, the French had not been idle. They had firmly established themselves in Canada—then called New France—and were diligently exploring the great lake region of the West and the Mississippi valley.

Early French Explorations.—We have already learned how Verrazani explored the coast of North America (1524) and claimed the country for France. We learned, also, how Cartier, ten years afterward (1534), discovered the St. Lawrence River and, ascending it as far as Montreal, took possession of all that region for the French king. After Cartier, many others came over from France to explore and colonize the country. There were three of them whose names are interwoven with the history of French exploration in the New World, and whose romantic lives and adventures deserve to be remembered.

Champlain (shăm plān′) explored the St. Lawrence River and made a settlement in Nova Scotia (1604), nearly three years before the first English settlement at Jamestown. He founded Quebec (1608), and in one of his many tours discovered the magnificent lake which bears his name. Champlain was the first governor of New France; and, under his wise and prudent guidance, the seeds of French power were carefully planted in Canada. Forts and settlements were established at various points, a profitable trade in furs was carried on with the natives, while zealous Jesuit (jez′u it) missionaries penetrated the forests at the risk of their lives to preach Christianity to the Indians.

Marquette (mär kĕt′) went to New France at an early age, as a Jesuit missionary. He spent many years among various tribes of Indians, learning their languages, studying their habits and customs, and teaching them the truths of the Christian religion. He had often heard the

Indians speak of a great river to the south which emptied into the ocean, and he determined to find it. He made his way (1673) on foot to the Wisconsin River. Here he and his countryman, Joliet (zho′le ā), with five attendants, embarked in two frail canoes and floated along for seven days, when, to their great joy, they found themselves on the broad waters of the Mississippi River, which De Soto had discovered one hundred and thirty years before. They continued their solitary journey down the Mississippi, discovering the Missouri and Ohio rivers, until they reached the mouth of the Arkansas River. Retracing their course, they entered and ascended the Illinois River, visited the site of



Chicago, and at length reached Green Bay, on Lake Michigan (1674), after a journey of twenty-five hundred miles.

La Salle (săl), on hearing of Marquette's discoveries and his romantic journey through the wilds of America, became seized with a desire to extend the boundaries of New France by discoveries of his own. He explored lakes Ontario and Erie, and selected the spot on which the city of Detroit now stands, as a desirable place for a colony. (See map on page 70.)

After planting a settlement at Mack'i nạw, he visited Green Bay, where Marquette had stopped five years before. He wandered all over the region of Illinois, Wisconsin, and Michigan, going boldly among tribes of savage Indians, often beset with difficulties and enduring sufferings, but always sustained by his indomitable courage and his pride in the grandeur of his undertaking.

After exploring the great rivers that flow into the Mississippi, he sent a small party of his followers, under Hen'ne pin (1680), to discover the sources of that river. Hennepin and his company ascended it as far as the Falls of St. Anthony. Two years afterward (1682), La Salle himself descended the Mississippi to its mouth. Here he set up a cross and a column bearing the royal arms of France, and formally claimed all the country along the Mississippi and its tributaries, from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico, for his royal master. To this vast territory he gave the name of Louisiana, in honor of the French king.

Returning through the wilderness to Montreal, he sailed for France. There he described to the delighted king and his court the marvelous country he had discovered.

He soon sailed again (1684) for America with three hundred settlers, with whom he proposed to found a colony in Louisiana. When his ships reached the Gulf of Mexico, they missed the mouth of the great river, and La Salle and his company landed in Texas and made a settlement. La Salle now endeavored to find the Mississippi River. But disasters followed thick and fast. One of his ships abandoned him, another was wrecked; while disease and hunger on the one hand, and the Indians on the other, were rapidly thinning his ranks. His companions, on account of their sufferings, became mutinous, and one of them, in a spirit of revenge, killed him. The few survivors of the colony fell into the hands of the Spaniards and were put to the sword.

Though La Salle was no more, his scheme had not died with him; for, thirty years after his death, prosperous settlements had been made at Mobile and New Orleans.

THE COLONIAL WARS.

The French and the English colonists differed from each other in almost every respect. They were of a different race, they differed in ideas, in feelings, and in religion. They were bitter rivals in the fur trade and

on the fishing-grounds. Owing to all this, an intense jealousy and hatred had gradually grown up between them. They were now, moreover, in close proximity, and it required but a slight cause to provoke bloodshed. So, whenever a war broke out in Europe between

A COLONIAL FAMILY FLEEING FROM THE INDIANS.

England and France, their American colonies at once took sides in the quarrel and became involved in bloody conflict with one another.

King William's War (1689–1697) was brought about by a great event that took place in England. You will remember the English king who thought the colonies

had too much liberty, and who took away their charters and made them all into one royal province. That same monarch became so unpopular in England, that he was driven from the throne, and a new king, William III., put in his place. The King of France took offense at this action of the English people and at once declared war against England.

The governor of New France promptly gathered a large body of Indians, who, joining with the French, carried the war into New England and New York. The defenseless settlements in New Hampshire and Maine were ravaged by fire and sword. Scenes of ferocious barbarism took place all along the frontier. A party of French and Indians descended into New York, and, in the dead of night, fell upon the quiet village of Schenectady (skĕn ĕk′tā dy). A most horrible massacre followed, after which the village was fired.

All the northern colonies now united and, in return, made war on the French. Two expeditions were planned; one for the capture of Montreal and the other for the capture of Quebec; but both of them were feebly conducted and failed. Acadia, however, was taken. The war lasted eight years, and was carried on by the French with heartless cruelty. When peace was declared, Acadia was given back to the French.

Queen Anne's War (1702–1713).—Four years afterward, war broke out again. This time England was arrayed against Spain as well as against France; so that, while the people of New England had to contend against

the French and Indians of Canada, as during King William's War, the colonists in South Carolina were compelled to fight the Spanish and their Indian allies in Florida.

The governor of South Carolina sent a force (1702) to Florida to capture St. Augustine. The place was about to surrender, when, a Spanish fleet appearing upon the coast, the victors were forced to retreat. A combined French and Spanish fleet, in return, made an attack on Charleston four years afterward, but was gallantly driven out of Charleston harbor.

All the horrors of Indian warfare were again enacted on the advanced settlements of Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Hampshire. Village after village was desolated; men, women, and children were murdered without mercy, while great numbers were carried off into captivity. Few escaped by flight.

The New England colonies now carried the war into Canada, and ravaged the French settlements on the border. Acadia was again captured and its name changed to Nova Scotia. It has ever since been held by England.

King George's War (1744–1748).—After thirty years of peace, France and England had another quarrel which resulted in war. An expedition was organized by the governor of Massachusetts for the capture of Louisburg, on Cape Breton (brĭt′ŭn) Island, one of the strongest fortresses in Canada. Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire readily entered into the project, and contributed men and money freely. An English fleet

bore the colonial army and landed it before Louisburg. Desperate fighting took place before the town was surrounded; but the valor of the colonial troops prevailed, and the French were driven behind their strong defenses.

Louisburg was now regularly besieged and, after a heroic resistance of six weeks, was forced to surrender. The rude soldiers of New England had thus reduced the greatest stronghold in America, the key to the French possessions in Canada. The news of the victory sent a thrill of joy throughout the English colonies; but, when peace was declared (1748), and Louisburg given back to the French, the colonists were deeply chagrined. They had learned, however, how well they could fight against trained soldiers, and, thereafter, they had greater confidence in themselves.

The French and Indian War (1754–1763).—But a greater war than any of these was close at hand. It was to be a struggle to decide whether the French or the English were to be supreme in North America.

We have already seen that the English, when they planted colonies along the Atlantic coast, claimed the country back of them to the Pacific Ocean, while the French, whose main colonies were in Canada, claimed all the territory east of the Mississippi, not occupied by the English, from the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico. These claims, of course, conflicted, and the time was now approaching when they must be decided.

The French had watched the growth of the English colonies with jealous eyes, and sought, by erecting a

chain of forts and military stations, to hem them in and keep them from extending westward.

How the War came About.—As the English colonies grew, small parties of men from Virginia and Pennsylvania crossed the Alleghany Mountains, to make settlements in the Ohio River region. The French sent soldiers to break up the English settlements as fast as they were made, and to drive away the colonists.

Governor Din wid'die, of Virginia, sent a young man named George Washington with a message to the French commander on Lake Erie, demanding the withdrawal of French soldiers from the disputed ground. But that officer replied that the country belonged to France, and refused to withdraw from it.

It was now clear that the French colonies and the English colonies could not live in peace with each other in this country. One or the other must control it all, and war must decide which should go and which should stay.

The First Fight.—In the spring (1754), the French drove away some English settlers from the spot where Pittsburg now stands, and built a fort there which they called Fort Duquesne (dū kān′). Washington was sent with a small force to see what they were about, and one night he surprised and defeated a party of French and Indians who had been sent against him. But the fort was too strong for him to take with his small command. He therefore built a stockade fort, which he called Fort Necessity, and resolved to hold his ground until other troops could

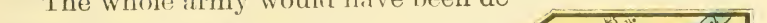
come to his assistance. Before help could reach him, however, a large body of French and Indians attacked him, and, after a severe fight, he was forced to surrender.

Braddock's Defeat.—During the next year (1755), a British general named Braddock took command, and marched against Fort Duquesne with a strong force, composed partly of regular soldiers from England and partly of colonial volunteers. He took Washington with him as his aid. Like all British officers of that time, Braddock thought very little of the colonial officers and soldiers.

Washington informed him that the French had large bodies of Indians with them, and told him that it would not do to fight Indians in the way that white soldiers had to be fought. The Indians never come out in regular order and fight a battle; they hide behind trees and rocks, and pick off men with their rifles, taking care never to show themselves openly. Washington knew the Indian method of fighting, and he begged Braddock to allow his soldiers to fight in the same manner. But Braddock sneered at this advice, and marched on, as if on parade, with drums beating and flags flying.

When the army came within ten miles of the fort, the Indians, who were hidden in the woods, suddenly opened fire. They were all around the English, pouring in a shower of bullets from every side, and yet scarcely one of them could be seen. Still, Braddock would not take advice. He kept his regulars together, firing volleys which did no good, while the Indians, from behind trees and rocks, were shooting his men down by scores.

The whole army would have been destroyed but for Washington's courage and good sense. With his little body of colonial volunteers, he rushed into the woods and held the Indians back until Braddock's regulars could retreat. Braddock himself was mortally wounded, and so Washington took command in time to save what was left of the army. It



had been so badly beaten that even the demoralized remnant could not have retired but for Washington's skill and the courage of the colonial troops.

The War in the North.—Fort Duquesne was only one of the points to be fought for. This war, as we already know, was not a mere fight for certain pieces of territory, but was a last, fierce struggle to decide whether America should belong to England or to France. So the French tried to hold their own, not only west of the Alleghany Mountains, but marched down from Canada to conquer the English in New York and New England, while the English tried to take Canada from the French.

The English, at the opening of the war, had planned four expeditions to take four important points. Braddock was to seize Fort Duquesne, but he failed. General Shirley was to take Fort Niagara, and he also failed. The other two expeditions were a little more successful.

One of them took the French forts on the Bay of Fundy, and cruelly forced the people of Acadia to leave their homes and all they had in the world. These unfortunate people were driven on board of English ships and scattered through the colonies wherever the English chose to send them. They had thus to begin life over again among strangers, after having labored for years to make good homes for themselves in Acadia.

The Battle of Lake George.—The other expedition was led by General Johnson, and its object was to capture Ticonderoga (tī kŏn der o′ga), at the northern end of Lake George, and Crown Point, at the southern end of Lake

Champlain. These places would be of great importance to the English, and so Johnson marched with an army to take them. When he reached the head of Lake George, he met the French, and a fierce battle was fought. Success seemed at first to be altogether with the French; but after awhile, Johnson was slightly wounded, when General Lyman, a brave colonial officer, took command and beat the French terribly. It was a great victory, but, instead of pushing on to Ticonderoga and Crown Point, Johnson remained where he was and built a fort, which he named William Henry.

English Disasters. — During the next two years every thing went badly with the English. Montcalm (mŏnt kăhm′), the French general, took Fort Os we′go, on Lake On ta′ri o, and Fort William Henry, on Lake George (1757). Montcalm promised the English commander of Fort William Henry that his men should be allowed to march in safety down to Fort Edward, but just as they began their march, the Indian allies of the French fell upon them and killed many, in spite of all that Montcalm could do to save them.

The following year (1758), General Abercrombie (ăb′ er crŭm by), with a very strong force, sailed down Lake George to attack the French at Ticonderoga; but, although his army was much stronger than Montcalm's, he was badly beaten, losing two thousand men. During the fight, which he ought to have led, he hid himself in a safe place, and when it was over, although he still had more men than the French, retreated as quickly as he could.

How a Change came about.—Abercrombie's defeat was the last of the English disasters. The colonists now had arms enough, and were allowed to fight in their own way, and a series of brilliant victories followed. General Amherst (ăm′erst) stormed and took Louisburg, the French stronghold on Cape Breton Island, while a month later Colonel Bradstreet, of New York, with a small body of colonial soldiers, took Fort Frŏn′te nac, at the lower end of Lake Ontario. Before the close of the year, Washington captured Fort Duquesne; and so, when the year ended, the English were better off than they had been at any time since the war began. During the next year (1759), the war still went well with the English. General Amherst succeeded in taking Ticonderoga and Crown Point, and General Prideaux (prĭd′ō) captured Fort Niagara.

The French were now completely shut out of the territory of the English colonies, but they still held Quebec, the strongest place in America, and so long as they held that town Canada was secure. General Wolfe, therefore, made up his mind to attack Quebec.

The Capture of Quebec.—This was a very daring undertaking, because the city was built on the top of a high bluff, and it was strongly defended. Wolfe had under him an army of eight thousand men, but Montcalm, the French commander, had as many on his side, and that, too, behind the fortifications. For several months Wolfe could not find a way even to get before the French works. At last, he discovered a narrow path that led to

the top of the bluff, and one night he landed, surprised and captured the guards, and led his men up this path.

When morning came, Wolfe, with his army, was on the Plains of Abraham, with level ground between him and the town. The French came out and made a fierce charge. Wolfe's men held their ground and drove the French back. After a severe battle, in which both Wolfe and Montcalm were killed, the French were beaten, and a few days later the English marched into the town. From that day to this, the English have held Quebec, which they call the Gibraltar (ǧi brạl'ter) of America.

End of the War.—About a year later, the English took Montreal, and when peace was made between England, France, and Spain (1763), it was agreed that the English should have all the country east of the Mississippi River, and Spain all the country west of it. The French thus gave up all their possessions in North America.

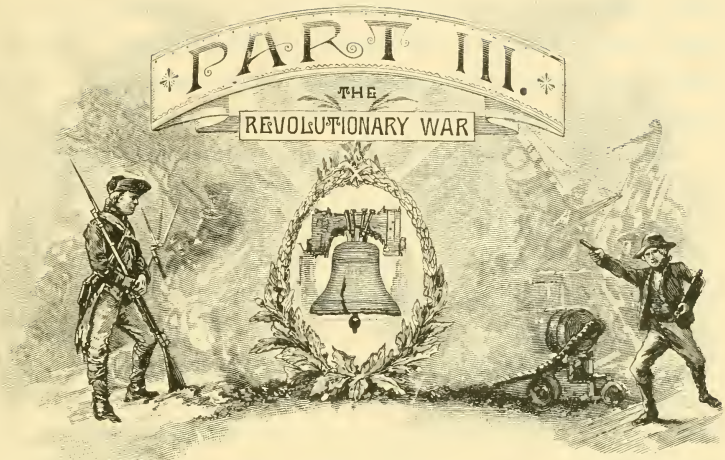
QUESTIONS.

1. Why did the first settlers in the different colonies know little about each other?
2. What was the character of the Virginia colonists? Who was Captain John Smith? What did he do for the colony? Tell about Pocahontas. What plant was largely raised by the colonists? Give an account of the wars with the Indians. What happened during "Bacon's Rebellion"?
3. Who first settled New York? Which one of the Dutch governors was the most able? What did he do? When did the English take possession?
4. By whom was the first settlement in Massachusetts made? With what difficulties did the Plymouth colonists meet? When was Massachusetts Bay Colony founded? Give the cause and chief events of King Philip's War.
5. When was New Jersey settled by the English? When was the colony divided? When re-united? When did it obtain a separate governor?
6. When and by whom was Maryland settled? Tell about "Clayborne's Rebellion". What troubles took place between Catholics and Protestants?

7. Who settled Providence? Give the story of Roger Williams. When was Rhode Island Plantation settled? When did the colonies receive a charter?
8. When and at what places were the first settlements in Connecticut made? What was the cause of the Pequod War? Give an account of the war. When and by whom was New Haven Colony settled? Describe the New England League. Tell the story of the Charter Oak.
9. What were the first New Hampshire settlements? What difficulties did the settlers experience from the Indian wars?
10. Who were the first settlers in Delaware? When did the Swedes establish a colony? Give an account of its conquest by the Dutch;—by the English. When was the territory granted to Penn?
11. When and under what grant did the Quakers settle Pennsylvania? When was Philadelphia founded? Tell about the treaty with the Indians. How was the colony governed? What was the growth of the colony?
12. When were the first settlements made in the Carolinas? Who founded the Albemarle Colony? What were the plans of the proprietors? When was the Carteret Colony founded? When were the colonies separated?
13. Who was the founder of Georgia, and what was his purpose? When was the first settlement made? When did trouble with the Spaniards occur? How was the colony governed? When did it become a royal province?
14. Name in the order of settlement the thirteen original colonies.
15. Who were the early French explorers? Give an account of Champlain;—Marquette;—La Salle. What was the result of the French explorations?
16. What were the causes of ill-feeling between the French and the English in America? In what manner did wars in Europe affect the colonies?
17. When did King William's War take place? Give an account of the chief events. When was the next war? What were the important events? Tell bout King George's War. What was the cause of the French and Indian War? Give an account of the events of 1754;—1755;—1756;—1757;—1758;—1759. When was peace made? What were the results of the war?

FOR READING OR RECITATION.

Pocahontas.—L. H. Sigourney.
Ode to Jamestown.—J. K. Paulding.
Landing of the Pilgrims.—F. C. Hemans.
The Twenty-second of December.—Bryant.
Roger Williams.—Mrs. Whitman.
The Exiles.—Whittier.
The King's Missive.—Whittier.
An Interview with Miles Standish.—Lowell.
The Old Thirteen.—C. T. Brooks.



The French and Indian War had decided that English ideas were to prevail in North America. By the energy, courage, and patriotism of her colonies, England had now acquired a splendid empire in the new world. And while she reaped all the glory of the war and its fruits, it was the hardy colonists who had, throughout, borne the brunt of the conflict.

Treatment of the Colonies.—The colonies being relieved from the anxiety which their hostile neighbors had hitherto caused them, were now free to extend their settlements to the west. But there was something which troubled their peace quite as much as their former neighbors had done. This was their treatment by England. You will remember that almost every colony had had cause for complaint. Sometimes the colonists

had been assailed in their personal liberty; sometimes in their political rights. Dishonest governors had plundered them, and tyrannical governors had again and again grossly abused and oppressed them.

Their wrongs had been forgotten in the excitement of the war; but now that the war was over, the people began to remember them.

Let us see what was the nature of some of the wrongs of which the colonists complained.

The Navigation Act.—The New England people, living as they chiefly did along the sea-shore, had early entered into the business of building ships, which they sent with valuable cargoes to the West Indies, to England, and to other parts of the world. In a few years, a large and profitable trade had been developed, and, as new markets opened to the enterprise of the colonists, they made money and grew wealthy.

The English people after a time, however, became jealous of the prosperity of the colonists, and having many ships of their own, began to devise plans by which to grasp for themselves a share of the wealth that was thus rolling in to the colonists.

Accordingly, a law was passed in England which prohibited any thing being brought into that country from the colonies unless taken there in an English ship, commanded by an English captain, and sailed by an English crew. This was called the Navigation Act. The effect of this unjust law was severe upon the colonists. They had invested a great deal of money in ships, and

now their ships must rot in idleness, in order that English merchants might make all the profits of carrying American goods to England. Thousands of brave American sailors were now to remain idle that English sailors might have steady and profitable employment.

Acts of Trade.—All this was hard enough on the Americans. Still they could send part of their products to other countries in their own ships, and so, in spite of that unjust law, they continued to make money and to prosper. But the increasing prosperity of the colonies only increased the jealousy of the English merchants; and, in order to make them still more dependent on England, another and even more unjust law was made.

This law forbade them sending their most valuable products, such as sugar, cotton, rice, and tobacco, to any other country than England. It placed the Americans at the mercy of English merchants, forcing them to take whatever those merchants saw fit to pay them for their products. For their cotton, tobacco, sugar, and rice, they received only about one half of what they could have got for them from other countries.

Restricting Foreign Trade.—These two laws gave England control of the colonial shipping trade, as well as of almost every thing raised in the colonies. But this did not satisfy the greed of the English merchants. They must not only control every thing coming from the colonies, but they must control every thing going to the colonies as well. So another law was passed, prohibiting the colonies importing any thing whatever from

any country in Europe, unless it was shipped from an English port and in an English ship.

Besides these, many other harsh laws were made which oppressed the people almost beyond endurance. The mountains of Pennsylvania were full of iron; but the people were forbidden to use it, or even to sell it to England. In the great forests of the Carolinas they were not allowed to make turpentine or rosin or barrel staves. Hats or woolen goods could not be sent from one colony to another. Even on his own land, a farmer could not cut down a single tree without the king's consent.

Indeed, the English people acted from the first as if the colonies existed only for the purpose of helping them make money. All these laws were severely oppressive. They interfered with the trade of the colonists, upon which their happiness and prosperity depended. And, moreover, these laws, hard as they were in themselves, became doubly odious to the people when tyrannical governors, with a swarm of petty officers, were sent over from England to enforce them.

Writs of Assistance (1761).—The trade and industries of the colonies were now so unlawfully hedged about by these oppressive laws and regulations that many of the colonists evaded them whenever they could safely do so. Smuggling, therefore, was largely resorted to in every colony. American merchants would send their own ships to France or Spain, at the risk of capture, with a valuable cargo of rice or tobacco. These ships would return from those countries laden with goods,

which were secretly landed without the knowledge of the British officers.

During the French and Indian War, England was greatly in need of money, and so sought to put a stop to smuggling by the colonists. She might easily have done this in a way that would not have offended the Americans. But she did not understand the spirit of the people, and resorted to a course which was certain to make them angry A law was made which gave any British officer the right to search the stores and houses of the people for smuggled goods. This law, of course, was very obnoxious to the colonists, and they resisted it in every way possible.

Training of the Colonists.—The colonists, at first, were feeble, and unable to help themselves; but now that they had become quite strong, they chafed under this injustice. They had fought bravely during the long French and Indian War, and the experience gained in that struggle had given them a confidence in themselves which they lacked before.

They had discovered that they were quite as valiant as the British regulars. They had learned, too, that their own officers, among whom were Washington, Gates, Putnam, and Montgomery, could manage an army just as well as the British officers who had treated them with contempt all through the war.

But this was not all. During the war, the colonists had, in a measure, learned to govern themselves. They had made and enforced their own tax laws, and had

raised large armies and paid them; so that now they felt confident that, if necessary, they could manage all such matters for themselves. But, notwithstanding the harsh treatment they had received, they still loved the mother country, and had no thought of separating from her.

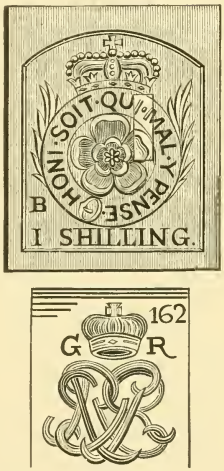
Origin of the Trouble.—When the French and Indian War was over, England insisted that the colonists should aid in paying the heavy debt caused by it. The colonists thought that if money was to be raised from among them for that purpose, they, themselves, should be permitted to say, at least, in what manner it should be done. While they were perfectly willing to tax themselves for England, they denied her right to tax them, because she would not allow them to be represented in the British Parliament, where the tax laws were made. In this the colonists were only insisting on their rights as Englishmen. The British would not listen to this reasonable argument, but continued to treat the Americans as though they had no rights whatever.

The Stamp Act.—In 1765, a law called the Stamp Act was passed. It required the Americans to buy British tax-stamps, and put them on all their deeds, bonds, and notes, as well as upon their newspapers and almanacs. This was more than the Americans would endure.

They, therefore, mobbed the men who were sent over from England to sell the stamps, and resolved to resist not only this law, but all other unjust laws. The day the stamps arrived in Boston, so profound was the sorrow of the people, the church bells were tolled, minute-

guns were fired, and the vessels in the harbor hung their flags at half-mast. The people in every colony now pledged themselves not to use British goods of any kind, and manufactures soon started up in spite of the laws forbidding them.

A Congress was held in New York to declare the rights of the colonies, and societies called Sons of Liberty, were formed to resist their wrongs. From Massachusetts to Carolina, the people were full of indignation. The British government, seeing the determined opposition of the colonists, repealed the Stamp Act the following year (1766).



STAMPS.

This, however, did not make matters better, for Great Britain still claimed the right to tax the Americans, and it was this claim alone which the Americans were resisting. They did not care for the stamp tax any more than they cared for any other, but they denied the right of the British government to tax them at all, unless they had a voice in making British laws.

When, therefore, the Stamp Act was repealed, and, instead of it, taxes were laid on tea, glass, paints, and other articles brought into the country, the Americans resisted as stoutly as ever. Soldiers were then sent over from England to compel them to obedience.

The Mutiny Act (1768).—This was bad enough, but, to make matters still worse, a law called the Mutiny Act was passed, which required the colonies to support these soldiers who had been sent to overawe them. Of course the colonists refused to obey this law, and became more indignant than ever. They at last began to think of uniting against the British, as they had done against the French and Indians.

The Boston Massacre (1770).—In Boston, people were incensed at the insolence of the British soldiers; and, in March, 1770, during a quarrel, the soldiers fired upon the citizens, killing three and wounding two. At once the bells were rung, and the country people came running into town with guns in their hands, to the defense of their countrymen. After a little time, however, the excitement was allayed, and the city grew quiet again.

The Tea Tax (1773).—Seeing by the temper of the people that there was danger of war, the British now decided to take a different course. They repealed all taxes except a small duty on tea. That tax was small, but it was large enough to keep up their claim of a right to tax the Americans. The English thought, of course, that so paltry a tax would be paid without trouble.

But again they were mistaken. The Americans did not care for the amount of the tax, but they did care for their rights. A great principle was involved in the dispute. They now not only refused to pay duty on tea, but would not submit to be taxed at all. The Charleston

people permitted the tea which had been sent to that city to be landed, but they stored it in damp warehouses, where it soon molded. The people of Philadelphia and New York sent the tea-ships in their harbors back to England. Boston would have done the same thing, but the British officers would not permit them; whereupon a body of men, painted and dressed like Indians, boarded the ships one night and emptied the tea into the harbor.

Getting Ready for War (1774).—The Boston Tea-party, as it was called, occurred in December, and, from that time forward, the quarrel grew more and more bitter. To punish the Boston people, a law was passed forbidding ships to enter or to leave their harbor. Under this law, boats were not permitted to pass from one side of the harbor to the other, or even from one dock to another.

Americans everywhere were angry that the British should thus try to ruin a town and starve its people into submission. With its harbor closed, very little business could be done in Boston, and the laboring people, unable to procure work, were soon suffering; but other colonies soon sent them money and food, Georgia and South Carolina sending ship-loads of rice.

Marblehead and Salem promptly gave Boston the free use of their wharves, so that the chief result of that law was to embitter the people more than ever. All the other colonies were thoroughly aroused by this treatment of Massachusetts, and began to prepare for war.

The "Minute Men."—Military companies were formed

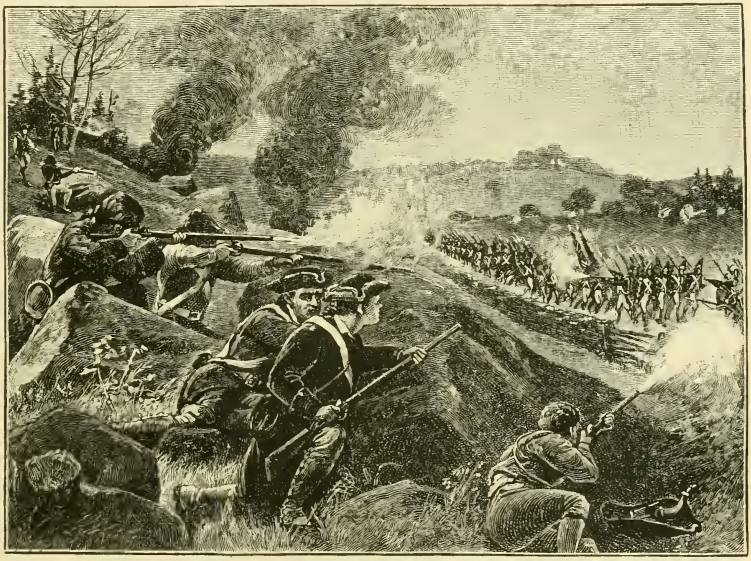
and drilled, and the men held themselves in readiness to fight at a minute's warning. Hence they were called "minute men". One day it was reported that the British ships were firing on Boston. Within a few hours, thirty thousand men from the country around Boston were marching toward the town. The report was not true, but the promptness with which the alarm was responded to encouraged the American leaders to continue resistance. They saw from it how ready the people were for war. In September of the following year (1774), a congress of all the colonies, except Georgia, was held in Philadelphia, and it was there agreed that they should unite in resisting all unjust laws and in defending themselves.

How the War Began (1775).—The war began at Lexington, near Boston. General Gage, who had been appointed royal governor of Massachusetts, sent a force from Boston, during the night, to destroy some military stores which the Americans had gathered at Concord.

A young patriot, named Paul Revere, was apprised, by a signal light in a church steeple, that the British were about to start. He then set out toward Lexington on his famous ride. He alarmed the people of the villages through which he passed, and the men, taking their muskets with them, hurried on toward Lexington. At daylight, the next morning, many of them were found assembled on the green at that place.

When Gage's soldiers arrived, the Americans were ordered to disperse, but they silently maintained their ground. Immediately the British fired upon them, killing

seven men. The British soldiers then marched on to Concord, but most of the stores had in the meantime been safely removed beyond their reach. The news of the morning spread like wild-fire, and during the day, the brave "minute men" were rapidly collecting from all the neighboring country.



THE RETREAT OF THE BRITISH FROM LEXINGTON.

When the British started back toward Boston, they were shot at from behind fences, rocks, and trees, and from all sides. Their men fell at every step, and so great was their peril that General Gage found it necessary to send a large body of infantry, with artillery, to

GOING TO BOSTON.

sustain them. At last, they reached the town, but all along the road lay three hundred of their men.

The Rally after Lexington.—Such a glorious deed as this aroused the people everywhere throughout the colonies. Farmers left their work in the fields and, going

THE PATRIOTS BUILDING FORTIFICATIONS AROUND BOSTON.

home for their rifles, hastened on to the scene of danger. From every farm and village, brave men and boys were marching toward Boston. There was soon an American army of twenty thousand men around that city, in which they determined to keep the British if they could.

Battle of Bunker Hill (1775).—The patriots built

earth-works around Boston, and one night about twelve hundred of them, under Colonel Prescott, marched across from Cambridge to fortify Bunker Hill, which stood near Boston. But finding that Breed's Hill, close by, was a better place from which to command the town, they made intrenchments there. When the British, the next morning, discovered what had been done, General Howe crossed over with three thousand men to capture the hill, while the ships of war in the harbor rained shot and shell on the devoted patriots.

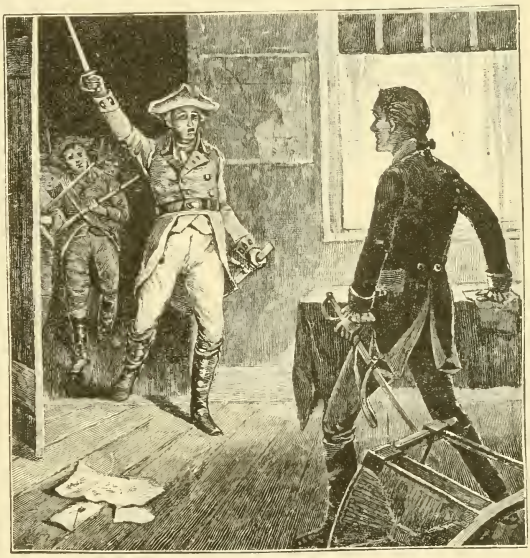
Twice the British advanced to the attack, and twice they were sent reeling back by the terrible fire of the Americans. They rallied for the third time, and again they marched up the hill. By this time, the Americans had only one round of ammunition left, and after firing that in the faces of the British, they used their guns as clubs, and with them tried to beat them back.

But without ammunition, the patriots could not stand long before the enemy, and so they were driven, step by step, from their breastworks at the point of the bayonet. The Americans had proved, however, that they had the courage to stand against British regulars, and they fairly counted that quite as valuable as a victory.

Capture of Ticonderoga (1775).—About a month before, the Americans had gained another very important victory. Ethan Allen, with a small body of farmer boys, from the Green Mountains of Vermont, undertook, early in May, to capture the fort at Ticonderoga. The fort was very strong, but the Americans, by a sudden dash,

took it without the loss of a man. The place being full of cannon, powder, and other valuable stores much needed by the Americans, its capture was a great gain. Crown Point was taken two days later.

Other Events of 1775. — Washington, who had been made Commander-in-chief of the American army, went to Boston and took command. The army was made up of farmers, poorly clothed and armed, having very little powder, and no regular supply of food. It was Washington's first duty to drill the men, teach them how to fight, and get together stores of food and powder. While he was doing all this, he was careful to keep Howe's force closely shut up in the town, so that it could do nothing.



CAPTURE OF FORT TICONDEROGA.

Late in the summer, Montgomery and Arnold led two small armies into Canada, and laid siege to Quebec. After besieging the city for three weeks, it was decided

to carry it by storm. The men fought well, but the place was too strong for them. Montgomery was killed and Arnold wounded. The army, under General Wooster, continued to besiege the city until spring, and then retreated.

Early Events of 1776.—In the spring, Washington posted his army so that his guns threatened the British camp in Boston, and after a brief bombardment from Dorchester Heights, forced the enemy to leave the city. On the 17th of March they sailed away, and Boston was free. In June, a strong British force tried to take Charleston, South Carolina; but the gallant Colonel Moultrie, in a fort built of palmetto logs at the mouth of the harbor, gained a brilliant victory. He drove off the fleet on one side, and repelled a strong land force on the other. The British were so badly beaten that they gave up their attempt and sailed for New York.

The Declaration of Independence (1776).—Thus far, the colonists had been fighting only for their rights as British subjects; but they now resolved to set their country altogether free from British rule. Accordingly, on the 4th of July, 1776, Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence. By it they declared that the colonies were colonies no longer, but free and independent states. This was a very bold step, but it pleased the people, and gave them a new object for which to fight.

New York taken by the British (1776).—During the summer, the British sent all their armies and fleets against New York. At first, Washington tried to defend

the city; but, having only seventeen thousand men, he could not hold out long against thirty thousand. On the 27th of August, the British attacked the Americans on Long Island, and defeated them after a hard fight. But they did not follow up their victory, and two days later, during a fog, Washington, with great skill, safely withdrew his army to New York City. The British crossed over from Brooklyn to New York, whereupon Washington moved up the Hudson. He afterward crossed to New Jersey, but not until he had given battle several times to the British and their Hessian allies.

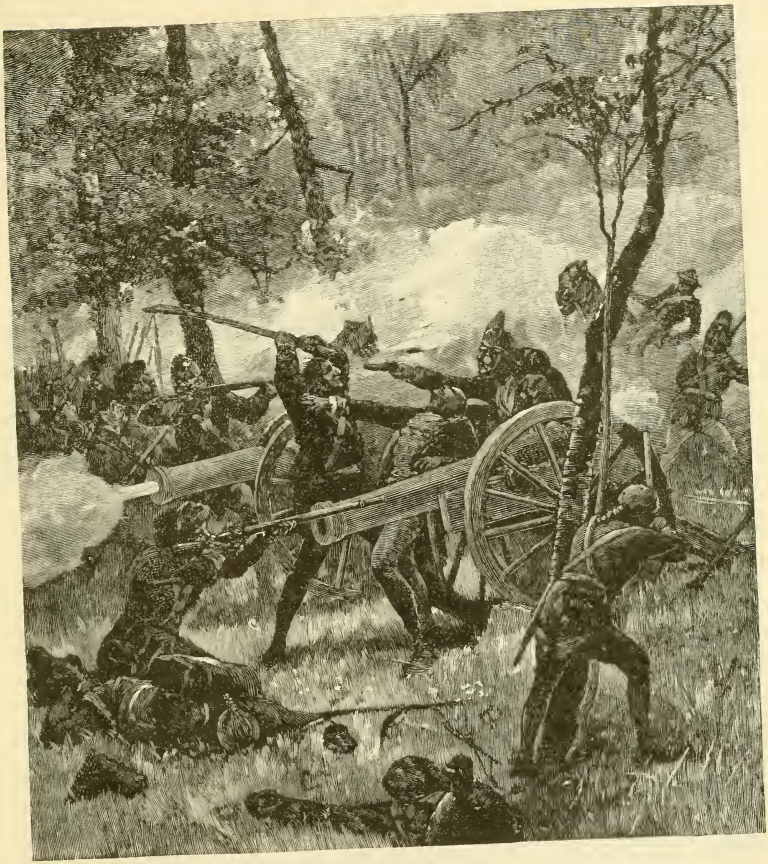
Washington's Retreat (1776).—Winter had now come, and with it a sad time for the Americans. New York was in the hands of the enemy, and Washington and his ragged little army were fleeing across New Jersey, closely pursued by the British under Cornwallis. The whole country was in despair; for every thing seemed lost. Early in December, Washington reached the Delaware River, and, seizing all the boats within his reach, got his army safely across just as the advance guard of the British made its appearance. He was now safe until the river should freeze over, when he knew that the British would advance on Philadelphia.

Battle of Trenton (1776).—But Washington was not yet beaten. He kept quiet until Christmas. The river was then full of floating ice, and a fierce storm had begun. Nobody supposed that an army would attempt to move at such a time, and the Hessians at Trenton, in fancied security, were making merry in honor of Christ-

mas. As night was falling, Washington took twenty-four hundred men, and with them silently crossed the river in spite of ice and storm. Landing on the New Jersey side, he fell upon the Hessians and quickly overcame them, taking a thousand prisoners. The Hessian commander, Colonel Rall, was mortally wounded, and died a few days afterward.

Battle of Princeton (1777).—Two days afterward, Washington again crossed to New Jersey with his whole army and occupied Trenton. At sunset, on the 2d of January, Cornwallis, with a large army, attacked him. Night coming on, the battle was stopped. During the darkness Washington quietly withdrew his army, leaving his camp-fires lighted in order to deceive the enemy. He marched around Cornwallis to Princeton, where he defeated a British force in a severe fight. Before Cornwallis could overtake him, Washington's army was strongly posted on the heights at Morristown. By a series of skillful movements, Washington, early in the spring, forced the British to leave New Jersey and retire to New York.

Philadelphia taken by the British (1777).—These brilliant victories revived the patriotic ardor of the Americans everywhere; but before the close of the summer, they suffered a great loss. The British fleet sailed from New York with a large army on board, and soon after entered Chesapeake Bay. Washington, surmising the object of this expedition, hurried southward with his little army, and met the British on the Brandywine,



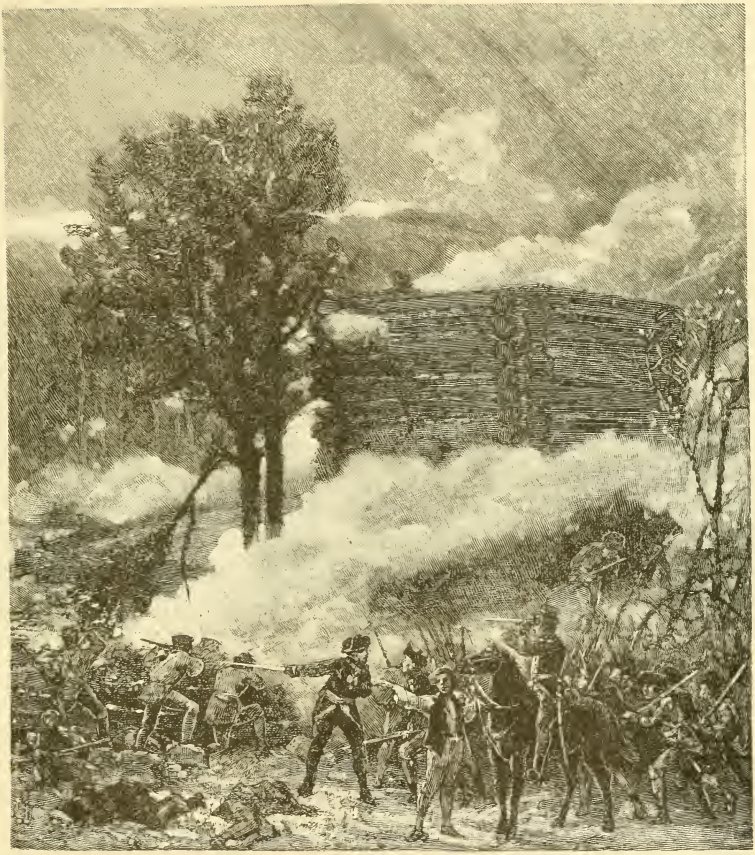
BATTLE OF SARATOGA.

near Philadelphia. After a desperate fight, the Americans were beaten, and Philadelphia was lost. In October, Washington attacked Germantown, opposite Philadelphia, but failed to drive the British from it.

Burgoyne (bûr goin′) **Captured** (1777).—Although the Americans had lost Philadelphia, they had won a splendid victory in the north. In June, Burgoyne, with a large army, set out from Canada to invade New York. He intended to get control of the Hudson River, and so cut off New England from the rest of the country. Crown Point, Ticonderoga, Fort Edward, and Whitehall fell, one after another, into his hands; and for a time, he appeared to have every thing his own way. But the Americans, seeing the danger, hurried forward to oppose him. Day by day, men came in from Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and New York, so that the patriot army constantly grew stronger.

The American forces had fallen back slowly to Bemis' Heights, near Saratoga, where General Gates took command. Burgoyne's main army had gone steadily forward; but small bodies of his men, sent out to collect supplies, had been repeatedly attacked by the Americans. In one of these fights, near Bennington, Vermont, General Stark, with his "Green Mountain boys", beat the British, and took six hundred prisoners. At the beginning of the battle, Stark, whose wife was called Betty, cried out to his men, "We must beat the redcoats to-day, boys, or Betty Stark is a widow!"

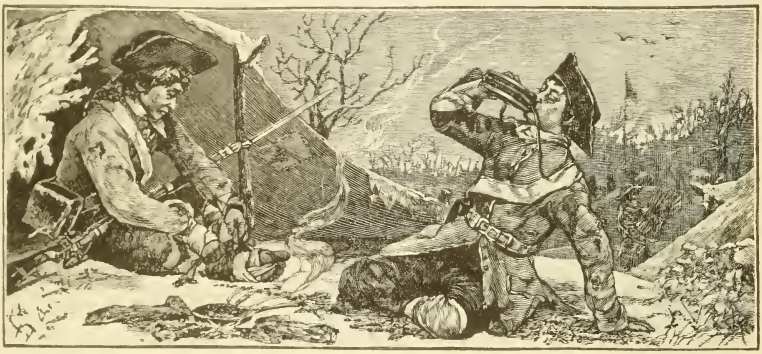
At Bemis' Heights both armies threw up earth-works, and the British made a fierce attack on the Americans. But after fighting all day, they gained nothing. They lay still in their intrenchments for two weeks, but their food meanwhile, was rapidly giving out. They found, then, that



BATTLE OF BENNINGTON.

they must either crush the Americans, or give up their plans. Making another attack, they fought desperately; but the Americans, at every step, opposed them like

heroes. The British and Hessians were driven back in confusion to Saratoga, where they were soon completely hemmed in by the army under General Gates. Burgoyne, seeing escape impossible, was now forced to surrender. This was a great success. Nothing that had happened since the war began, did so much to encourage the patriots and to give them confidence in the final success of their cause.

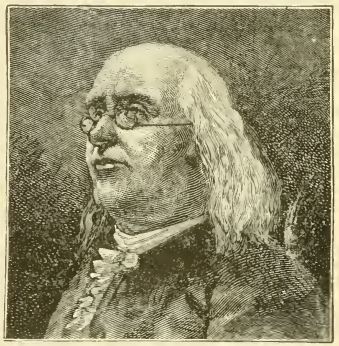


IN CAMP AT VALLEY FORGE.

Hardships at Valley Forge (1777).—The winter which followed was a terrible one. Washington's army was in winter-quarters at Valley Forge, near Philadelphia. The men suffered intense hardships. They had hardly any clothes or blankets, and often they were compelled to walk through the snow barefooted, marking their trail by bloody foot-prints. Cold, starvation, and disease had carried off almost one half of Washington's men before the winter was over. Still the patriots meant to win.

British agents went among Washington's starving men at Valley Forge and offered them good pay, and plenty of food and clothes, if they would desert; but none of them would listen to the shameful proposal.

Aid from France (1778).—A number of able French and German officers came over from Europe to help the Americans; and, in the spring, France made a treaty of alliance with the new nation against England, and sent out a large fleet of ships to assist in the war. These ships did little good; but the British government became alarmed at this turn of affairs and tried to bring the war to an end.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

England offered to set aside all the laws to which the Americans objected, provided they would lay down their arms; but the latter would not now listen to any proposal of the kind.

They had declared themselves free, and nothing but independence would now satisfy them. The British then tried to bribe American generals to betray their country. They offered General Joseph Reed, of Philadelphia, fifty thousand dollars if he would forsake his country's cause. General Reed sent back the noble answer, "I am not worth purchasing; but, such as I am, the King of Great Britain is not rich enough to buy me."

Progress of the War (1778).—When the news that

the British had taken Philadelphia reached Franklin, who was then in France, he said: "That is not the right way to say it; it is Philadelphia that has taken the British." It was not long before the British found that this was true. As long as they were there, they could do nothing, because Washington was watching them closely, and was ready to fall upon them, at any moment, should they attempt to move out of the town.

In the summer of 1778, they saw that if their army stayed in Philadelphia much longer, it would be shut up, as Howe's army in Boston had been at the beginning of the war, or perhaps forced to surrender. They therefore abandoned that city, and retreated across New Jersey to New York. Washington was in close pursuit all the way, and captured about two thousand of their men.

Finding that nothing could be done in the north, the British then sailed south, and captured Savannah. From that point they intended to overrun the Southern States; but they were again beaten at Charleston, and for a long time thereafter could do nothing in that section.

Indeed, during that and the following year, there was little done anywhere by either side. General Wayne, who was called "Mad Anthony", made a brilliant dash and captured a British fort at Stony Point, on the Hudson River. Paul Jones fought a desperate battle on the sea. In September, his ship, the Bon Homme Richard (bō nŏm′ ree shär′), fell in with the British ship Serapis. Jones lashed the two vessels together, and fought the British hand to hand. His ship was so badly disabled

that it was sinking under him; but nevertheless he continued to fight until the Serapis surrendered. He then sailed away on the captured vessel, leaving his own to sink.

The captain of the Serapis fought with so much bravery that, although he lost his ship, the British made

CAPTURE OF STONY POINT.

him a knight. When somebody told Paul Jones of this, he said: "Well, he deserved the honor; and if I meet him in his new ship, I'll make a lord of him."

The Treason of Arnold (1780).—The war was now carried on mainly in the south. But while neither side did much fighting at the north, the British resorted to another plan to compass the ruin of the patriot cause.

General Benedict Arnold, who had performed many brave deeds in the war, was then in command at West Point, the most important post on the Hudson River. Some time before, he had been reproved by Washington for misconduct, and was very angry. The British sent agents to him, with whom he conspired to surrender West Point, provided they would give him a large sum of money and a high position in their army.

MARION.

The bargain was made; but the Americans fortunately captured the British agent, Major André, as he was returning in disguise to New York, and so discovered the treasonable plot. Arnold at once fled and joined the British, and Andre was condemned and hung as a spy.

Arnold afterward fought against his country, but he was forever disgraced; for even the British, who had bribed him, despised and openly insulted him.

The War in the South.—During this year, the British captured Charleston after a siege of forty days, and then rapidly overran South Carolina. There was at first no regular force to oppose them, the patriot army under General Lincoln having surrendered at Charleston. But the men of South Carolina were brave, and eager to share in the fight for freedom.

Marion, Pickens, Sumter, and other daring men, of that State, enlisted companies of their neighbors, and gave the British a great deal of trouble. They would

retreat to the swamps whenever a strong force pursued them; but if a wagon train was left unguarded, or a small body of British soldiers became separated from the main army, these bold leaders, emerging from their am-

bush, would suddenly fall upon and destroy them. This kind of warfare was kept up constantly, and the British, even with their strong force, could never feel entirely safe in the country.

In August, 1780, General Gates, having raised an army, met the British in regular battle near Camden, South Carolina. He was beaten, however, and his army scattered. Every thing now depended upon the "Partisans", as the men under Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and "Light-horse Harry Lee" were called. They kept on fighting in their own way, giving the British no rest.

Greene's Campaign in the South (1781).—General Greene was sent south to succeed General Gates. He collected a small army, and fought the British under Cornwallis at every opportunity. In January, part of Greene's army, under General Morgan, beat Tarleton at Cowpens; but when Cornwallis advanced with his whole army against Greene, the latter retreated. He managed so well to elude his pursuers, that he kept Cornwallis and his army marching about in the swamps for weeks, till they were fairly worn out.

At Guilford Court House, in March, Greene faced Cornwallis, and gave him battle. After a hard fight, Greene again retreated; but the British were so badly hurt in the encounter that Cornwallis said, "Another such victory would ruin us." Cornwallis could not follow Greene, and dared not risk another fight, so he returned to Wilmington, North Carolina.

Greene at once went into South Carolina, and cleared

all that part of the country of British. He fought a battle at Eutaw Springs in September. After that fight, the British returned to Charleston, leaving Greene master of the whole southern country.

Siege of Yorktown (1781).—Arnold, the traitor, was at that time in Virginia, at the head of a British army. He carried on the war in a most savage manner, burning houses and barns, and robbing the people.

MARQUIS DE LA FAYETTE.

Washington sent the young French General, La Fayette, to Virginia to watch Arnold; but his force being small, Arnold continued unmolested his unmanly warfare, burning and robbing as before.

The British now decided to send re-enforcements from New York into Virginia; but Washington prevented this by his shrewdness. He threatened the city by planting guns, and doing other things to make the British think he was about to attack New York. They were, therefore, afraid to send away any of their men. But Cornwallis was ordered to go with his army from North Carolina into Virginia and relieve Arnold.

When Cornwallis reached Virginia, he took command in person, making his head-quarters at Yorktown. There he threw up extensive earth-works, and waited for Gen-

eral Clinton to send him the promised assistance from New York.

Washington now saw his chance to end the war. He again made a pretense of getting ready to attack New York, till the British expected him, at any hour, to open

STORMING A FORT AT YORKTOWN.

fire on the city. Leaving a small force behind him to keep up this idea, he hurried to Virginia with the main body of his army. Cornwallis was soon shut up in Yorktown. A French fleet sailed into York River at the same time, to keep off any British ships that might try to reenforce him. With heavy cannon, Washington began to

batter down Cornwallis' defenses. Day by day he slowly drew his lines closer round the British camp.

In a charge upon two of the outer forts, the French gallantly fought their way into one, and the Americans into the other. This pushed the British into very close quarters; and, at last, Cornwallis, finding that he could hold out no longer, decided to surrender. On the 19th of October, the whole army marched out of their intrenchments and laid down their arms.

The End of the War (1781).—This brought to an end the fight for American independence. The treaty of peace between England and the United States was not signed until nearly two years afterward; but the British made no further efforts to carry on the war.

The news of this splendid victory set the country wild. The watchmen in the streets at night shouted the good news at the top of their voices. Bells were rung, bonfires lighted, streets illuminated, and people in their ecstasy even wept for joy. The old door-keeper of Congress died of joy on hearing that his country was at last free.

People wanted to make Washington king, and he had to use all his influence to quiet them. As soon as the treaty was signed, the British gave up the cities which they still held, and the new nation began its life of independence. The soldiers, on being disbanded, went home quietly to their farms and their shops.

Washington, after bidding farewell to his officers, returned to his home at Mount Vernon, in Virginia, to live as a private citizen of the country he had saved. He

not only would not become king, but he would not even take pay for his great services. It was enough for him to know that his country was free and independent.

QUESTIONS.

1. What had the colonists done in the French and Indian War? Where did new settlements soon spring up? What obstacle to the development of the country arose soon after? In what ways were the colonists wronged?
2. What was the Navigation Act?—Act Restricting Foreign Trade? How did the English regard the colonies? How were their unjust measures enforced? How did the French and Indian War train the colonists?
3. What was the origin of trouble with England? Tell about the Stamp Act;—Sons of Liberty;—Mutiny Act;—Boston Massacre;—Tea Tax;—Boston Tea Party;—closing the port of Boston;—preparations for war.
4. Who were the "Minute Men"? How did the war begin? Give an account of the battle of Lexington;—rally after Lexington;—battle of Bunker Hill;—capture of Ticonderoga. How did the expedition against Canada result?
5. When did the British leave Boston? When was the Declaration of Independence adopted? How was New York taken by the British? Give an account of Washington's retreat;—the battle of Trenton.
6. When was the battle of Princeton fought? What was the result of Washington's campaign? What was the object of Burgoyne's expedition? Give an account of the battles of Saratoga;—Burgoyne's surrender. Describe the hardships at Valley Forge.
7. When did France aid the colonies? What offer did England then make? Why did the British leave Philadelphia? Tell about the war at the South. Who captured Stony Point? Tell about the capture of the Serapis.
8. Tell the story of Arnold's treason. Give an account of the battle of Camden.
9. What battle did General Greene fight in South Carolina?—in North Carolina? What was the final result of his campaigns?
10. Give an account of the siege of Yorktown. When did Cornwallis surrender? What was the effect of this victory? When was the treaty of peace signed? What events followed the close of the war?

FOR READING OR RECITATION.

Paul Revere's Ride.—Longfellow.
Lexington.—Holmes.
Concord.—A. B. Street.
The Battle of Eutaw.—Simms.
The Rangers.—Whittier.
Under the Old Elm.—Lowell.
Song of Marion's Men.—Bryant.

PART IV.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE STATES.

The State of the Country.—The war for independence was over. England made a treaty in 1783, giving up all claim to the colonies, and the country was free. But there was yet much to be done; there were still many dangers to be met and difficulties to be overcome before the new nation could take a place among the nations of the world.

In the first place, the country had no real government. There were thirteen separate and independent States, each free to do as it pleased. Each State claimed for itself the right to coin money, to lay duties on foreign goods, to levy taxes, and to raise and equip its own army. There was a loose kind of union between them, which did not amount to a good general government, because it had few of the powers belonging to a government.

Congress could not enforce tax laws, nor coin money, nor do any thing except advise the States; and the States could take the advice or neglect it, just as they pleased.

The weak States were afraid of the strong ones, and the strong ones were jealous of each other. Each State made laws for itself, and these laws sometimes stood in the way of trade between different parts of the country. The States were in a fair way to quarrel among themselves, and even to get into wars with one another, which would have been worse for them than any foreign war could have been.

It soon became evident that this would not do. There was an enormous public debt to be paid, and no money with which to pay it. The trade of the country was broken up, and the people were consequently poor. If Congress made treaties with foreign nations, it could not compel the States to accept or obey them. Foreign countries, therefore, would not make treaties under such circumstances.

The first Effort toward Union (1786).—Virginia took the lead in trying to remedy these troubles. In 1786, under the influence of James Madison, she invited the other States to meet her in convention to devise some plan for general trading purposes. Only five States sent delegates, but these delegates acted very wisely. Instead of trying to invent a plan themselves, they asked Congress to call a convention of all the States to adopt a stronger and better form of government for the whole country. Congress acted upon this advice, and called a

convention, which met at the State House in Philadelphia in 1787. Washington was its president, and all the States except Rhode Island sent delegates.

Political Parties (1787).—There were two parties in the convention and among the people. One party wanted to do away with separate State governments altogether, and make one solid nation of the whole country. The other party was afraid that such a government would become tyrannical. These men were willing to form a union of the States; but they would give the general government just as little power as possible, leaving the control of nearly every thing to the separate States.

The Constitution (1787).—After four months of debate, the convention agreed upon a constitution, although it was not exactly what either party wanted. Under this constitution, each State was left free to make its own laws, and to manage its own internal affairs as it pleased, while to the general government was given the power to manage all matters that affected the country at large.

The general government was to control and provide for an army and navy, make all treaties with other countries, manage the post-offices, coin the money, regulate commerce, impose taxes, and make such laws as concerned the liberty and welfare of the people of the whole country. This is the Constitution under which we still live, although, as we shall see further on, some changes have, from time to time, been made in it.

Formation of the Government (1788).—Ten of the States promptly accepted the Constitution, and the other

three did so within a few years. In this way, our country was formed into a great republic. It was not then, we must remember, nearly so large as it is now. There were less than four millions of people, and they lived in a narrow strip of country along the Atlantic coast. West of the Alleghany Mountains, the country was wild, with only an occasional settlement. The United States owned the land only to the Mississippi River, while Spain owned Florida and the vast country west of the Mississippi.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

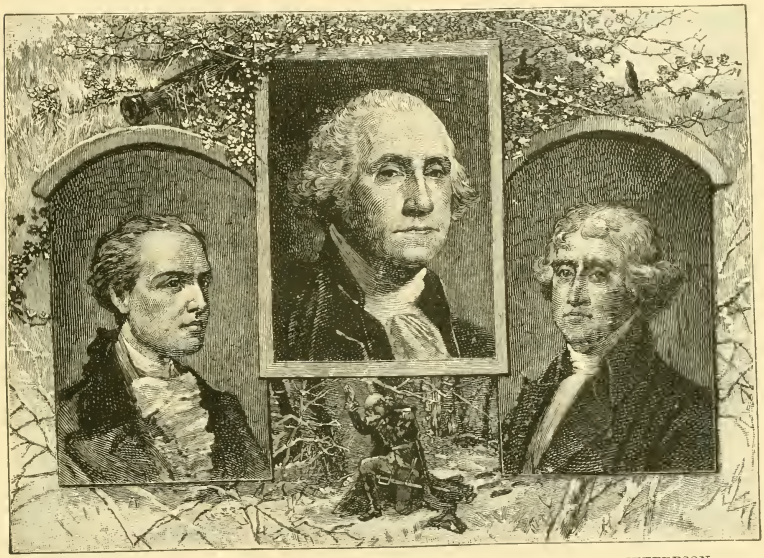
(TWO TERMS—1789-1797.)

The First President (1789).—Washington was chosen as the first President. He did not wish to leave his home again and engage in public affairs; but the country, as we have seen, was in a bad condition, and needed the services of its wisest and ablest man. The people were still poor, many of them did not take kindly to the new plan of government, and it needed the magic of Washington's name to make them contented with it. They knew that they could trust him.

There were treaties to be made, money to be raised, and a thousand other important things to be done, which could only be done by wise men whom the people loved and trusted; and they loved no other man as they loved Washington.

On his way to New York City, which was then the capital of the country, he was met by the people every-

where with shouts and songs of joy. Women and girls scattered flowers before him; men threw their hats in the air and cheered as he passed. The streets of the towns through which he journeyed were crowded with those who came out to welcome him. No other man in



HAMILTON. WASHINGTON. JEFFERSON.

the country could have done so much to make the new government popular.

The Work of the Administration.—Washington chose the wisest men in the Union as his advisers, among whom were Thomas Jefferson and Alexander Hamilton, two of the ablest men of the time, and, with their aid, set about the work of bringing prosperity to the nation.

The first thing to be done was to raise money; and, at the suggestion of Hamilton, a wise plan was adopted for that purpose.

A great many people thought they ought not to be taxed. In Western Pennsylvania a mob tried to keep the government from collecting the tax on whiskey; but Washington called out 15,000 militia from other States, and soon taught those men that the government of the United States was strong enough to enforce its laws. After that, there was no further trouble in raising money.

Foreign Affairs.—Another thing to be done was to make treaties with foreign countries. Spain at first refused to let American ships pass through the Mississippi River to the ocean; but by wise measures, that country was persuaded to make a treaty giving the young nation the free use of that river. There was trouble, too, about a treaty which was made with England, to settle many matters that were still in dispute between the two countries. Many good citizens thought the treaty was very unfair, and blamed the government for making it. They grew very angry, and made bitter speeches; but the treaty, nevertheless, went into effect.

Political Parties.—France had now set up a republic instead of her old kingdom; but in effecting this change, the French people had become wild with excitement, and had done many things that were wrong and dangerous. They put a great number of people to death, and made many bad and foolish laws.

England was then at war with France. Many Amer-

icans sympathized with the French, and wanted the United States to espouse their cause, because the French had helped the colonists in the Revolution, and because France was a republic. But others were afraid that if allied to France, the young republic would grow to be like the French one. They wanted our government to be more like that of England, as likely to be more stable and enduring.

At this time the people were divided into two parties. Those who liked the French ideas were called Republicans at first, and then Democrats. The others were called Federalists. Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Adams, and James Madison were the leaders of the Republicans; Alexander Hamilton and John Adams of the Federalists. The Federalists wanted to make the general government as strong as they could under the Constitution, while the Republicans, jealous of a central power, wished to limit its authority as much as possible.

The Republicans were afraid the general government would become too strong and interfere with the States; the Federalists feared the government would not have power enough to enforce its own laws and to rule the country safely. So when Washington had served for two terms as President, and refused to be elected again, the two parties waged a bitter contest over the election of a new President. The Federalists desired to elect John Adams, while the Republicans favored Thomas Jefferson. The country was quite evenly divided, but Adams was chosen by a majority of two electoral votes.

JOHN ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1797-1801.)

Condition of the Country (1797).—There were now sixteen States in the Union, Vermont having been admitted in 1791, Kentucky in 1792, and Tennessee in 1796. The Indians in the North-west, who had caused much trouble, had been conquered and quieted, and the people began to grow prosperous.

But there was great excitement throughout the land over affairs in France. The French rulers made a great deal of trouble for this country. They tried to fit out war ships here to serve against the British, and their agents did all they could to stir up discontent among the people. Washington sent home the French minister for meddling with American affairs, and took special pains to show other nations that the United States intended to keep out of all foreign quarrels.

The Quarrel with France.—The difficulty with France continued to grow after Adams became President. He sent Charles C. Pinckney as American minister to that country, but the French government refused to receive him. The officers of that government hinted to Pinckney that he might bribe them with money to receive him.

This was an insult to the United States, and Pinckney resented the proposal with indignation. "Millions for defense," he said, "but not a cent for tribute"; and when the news of the affair reached America, every-

body applauded the saying and it became a by-word among the people.

The country now began to get ready for war. Ships were sent out, new taxes were levied, an army was raised, and Washington was again called into service as Commander-in-chief. Several battles took place at sea; but before the quarrel could develop into a serious war, Napoleon became the ruler of France and put a stop to the trouble.

The Alien and Sedition Laws (1798).—During this period of excitement, Congress passed two laws which greatly offended the majority of the people. One of these laws gave the President power to send foreigners out of the country whenever he thought best to do so; and under the other, anybody who should write harsh things about the President or Congress might be fined and imprisoned.

These laws were very unpopular, because they were contrary to the spirit of American liberty, and many persons who had before voted for Adams, now went over to the Republicans. When, therefore, the time came to elect a President again, the Federalist party, which had passed these obnoxious laws, was defeated.

Politics. — The two Republican candidates received the same number of electoral votes, so that, according to the Constitution, the House of Representatives had to choose which of them should be President. Thomas Jefferson, who had been Vice-President during Adams' administration, was finally chosen.

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

(TWO TERMS—1801-1809.)

The War with Tripoli (1801).—Some of the most important events in the history of our country happened during Jefferson's two busy terms.

There were several half-savage states in the northern part of Africa called the Barbary States. The people of these states, instead of following peaceful occupations, lived by sending out pirate ships to capture the vessels of other nations. They not only took the ships and cargoes, but they made slaves of those on board; and when a man fell into their hands, he found himself in slavery for life, unless ransomed by his friends.

Many Americans were taken in this way, and at last, during Washington's administration, a treaty was made with the piratical states. By this treaty the United States agreed to pay them a large sum of money at once, and a smaller sum every year, provided the pirates would cease molesting American ships.

The people of Tripoli, one of the piratical states, did not keep their part of the bargain, and almost as soon as Jefferson became President, he resolved to take a decided stand in the matter. He maintained that it was wrong for the United States to pay tribute to any nation or people. Instead of bribing the pirates to let Americans alone, he said we ought to make them behave properly, and punish them when they seized our ships or people. The haughty Bashaw (ba shạw′) of Tripoli,

no longer receiving the customary tribute, declared war against the United States.

The country had at that time only six war ships, but Jefferson at once sent four of them against the pirates. One of these ships, the frigate Philadelphia, ran aground in the harbor of Tripoli, and was captured. A gallant young officer, Lieutenant Decatur, determined that the pirates should not be permitted to retain her.

He took a small crew of American sailors on board a little vessel, sailed into the harbor of Tripoli, boarded the ship in a hand-to-hand fight, and threw the pirate crew into the water.

As the Philadelphia was aground, he could not sail away with her; but he set her on fire and in the face of a furious cannonading from the forts all around him sailed out of the harbor unharmed. This was a very heroic deed.

The war began in 1801, and by 1805 Tripoli was so badly punished that the Bashaw was only too glad to sue for peace. He had learned that the United States was a nation not to be trifled with.

The Louisiana Purchase (1803).—One of the greatest events in the history of our country took place early in Jefferson's first term as President. Before that time, the United States owned the country only as far west as the Mississippi. At the close of the French and Indian War, Spain, as you know, acquired the French territory beyond the Mississippi River, known as the province of Louisiana; but by a secret treaty with France she afterward gave it

back to the French. In 1803, President Jefferson bought Louisiana from France, for fifteen millions of dollars.

Louisiana was a vast region, as large as the whole of what had been the United States before that time, as you will see by looking at the map. It included what we now call Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Nebraska, Iowa, North and South Dakota, Montana, Idaho, Oregon and Washington, together with the larger part of Minnesota, nearly all of Oklahoma and Kansas, part of Colorado, and most of Wyoming.

If Congress had not authorized the purchase of that great territory from France, the French would doubtless have planted colonies there, and in time another strong nation would have grown up side by side with us. The Mississippi River would always have been a matter to dispute and quarrel over. The United States would then have been compelled to maintain a large standing army for defense, as foreign countries do, and instead of becoming a great, peaceful republic, without a rival on the continent, it would have been only one of two or three nations, which would have had many costly wars with each other. Our country would probably never have become the Great Republic, if Louisiana had not been thus acquired.

The Slave Trade (1807).—For nearly two hundred years slavery had been steadily growing in this country. When Jefferson became President, negro slavery existed in nearly all the States, and ships were yearly bringing slaves in vast numbers from Africa. Under the Constitu-

tion, nothing could be done to restrict the slave trade until 1808; but after that time Congress was at liberty to consider the matter.

President Jefferson was strongly opposed to slavery. He considered it a great wrong, and believed that it was bad for the country. In 1807, he addressed a message to Congress, saying that the time was at hand when the slave trade could be legally stopped, and urged Congress to make a law against bringing any more slaves to this country. Congress debated the question for a time, and at last passed the law which Jefferson suggested, forbidding the introduction of slaves into the United States after January 1, 1808.

The Quarrel with England.—The country had much trouble with England during Jefferson's administration. The English government claimed the right to intercept American ships at sea, and to take from them any native-born Englishmen who might be on board as sailors, even though they had become American citizens.

In one case a British ship fired on one of our ships and searched her by force. This would have led to war at once, had not the English government made an apology. England, however, still persisted in claiming the right to search American vessels, and the dispute over this subject led to a war a few years later, as we shall see.

The Embargo Act (1807).—England and France being at war with each other, each wanted to ruin the commerce of the other. The English declared that no ships

of any nation should carry on trade with France, and France made a similar declaration against trading with England. The United States had nothing to do with the war, and American ships were doing a large business with both countries.

These orders, therefore, nearly ruined the trade of the country. If American vessels sailed for England, French ships would capture them; and if they tried to trade with France, it was at the risk of capture by English cruisers. American commerce was therefore at the mercy of both nations. Finally Congress put an embargo on all our commerce; that is to say, no American ships were permitted to leave port at all. This measure was ridiculed at the time as the "O grab me" act.

FULTON'S STEAM-BOAT.

This was done to force the English and French, who needed American products, to change their plans and let us trade in peace; but while it injured them, it also broke up the little business that was left, and ruined thousands of our merchants.

Politics.—The Federalists blamed Jefferson for all the injury done to business by the embargo, and on that issue hoped to elect a Federalist for the next President. But the Republicans thought England was to blame, and wanted to fight that country. Indeed, a large majority of the American people were clamorous for war, and so

when the time for election came around, they chose James Madison, a Republican, for President.

New State.—One new State, Ohio, was admitted to the Union (1803) during Jefferson's administration.

Introduction of Steam-boats.—It was during Jefferson's administration, in 1807, that Robert Fulton ran his first steam-boat, "The Clermont," on the Hudson River. Within a few years thereafter steam-boats were plying on all our navigable rivers.

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

(TWO TERMS—1809-1817.)

War with England (1812).—President Madison did every thing within his power to maintain peace with England, but the ill-feeling between the two countries only continued to increase. British ships kept searching American vessels on the high seas, and carrying away American seamen to serve on English war ships, while British emissaries from Canada were sending arms to the Indians in the North-west, and inciting them to make war against the United States.

General Harrison met and defeated the Indians, under the great chief Te cŭm'seh's brother, The Prophet, at the battle of Tip pe can oe', in 1811; and in 1812, the British outrages had reached such a point that the country could stand them no longer. War was accordingly declared against England.

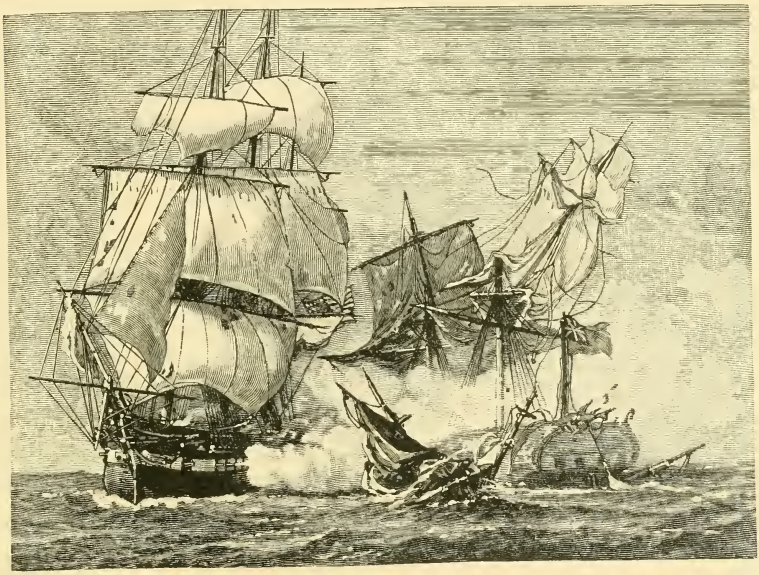
Opposition to the War.—The Federalists opposed the war very bitterly, both before it began and while it

lasted. But their unpatriotic course offended the people generally; and by the time that the war was over, the Federal party had become badly disorganized.

General Hull's Surrender (1812).—When war was declared, two armies were sent to invade Canada, but they

had no success. One of them, under General William Hull, soon fell back to Detroit without striking a blow. When the British, following after him, appeared before Detroit, Hull became scared and surrendered his army, and with it the whole of Michigan. The American officers were very angry that no resistance was made, and the soldiers, who were eager to fight, wept at the

disgrace: but, as good soldiers, they had to obey, even though they knew that their commander was a coward. Hull was afterward tried for cowardice and condemned to be shot; but the President, in the exercise of his mercy, spared his life. The other army



BATTLE BETWEEN THE GUERRIÈRE AND THE CONSTITUTION.

fought bravely at Queenstown Heights, but was ultimately captured.

The War on the Water (1812).—While the Americans were thus defeated on land, they won some brilliant victories at sea. Three days after General Hull had disgraced himself at Detroit, his nephew, Captain Isaac Hull, in

the ship Constitution, met the British war ship Guerrière (gĕr i ĕr′) off the Banks of Newfoundland. For two hours they fought desperately, when the British flag was hauled down. The Guerrière was so completely riddled in the fight that, when Captain Hull boarded her, she was sinking, and he could not tow her into harbor.

This was the beginning of a long series of sea-fights that followed, in which the American navy won its glory. The old ship Constitution, or "Old Ironsides", as the sailors affectionately call her, is still afloat.

Invasion of Canada (1813).—The next year, three armies were sent to invade Canada at three different points. Two of them did nothing, and the third, under General Harrison, found all it could do in defending itself from British attacks. The British still held Michigan, and as they were now masters of the lakes, it was feared they would land an army in Ohio and overrun that State also.

Perry's Victory on Lake Erie (1813).—But a young naval officer, Captain Oliver H. Perry, had in the meantime been sent to Lake Erie to see what could be done. This young man had never been in a battle, but he was brave, resolute, and full of energy. He went to work with his men, cut down trees, hewed them into shape, and built a fleet of small ships.

When this was done, he put guns and men aboard, and sailed out upon the lake. There he met the British squadron on the 10th of September, 1813, and at once offered battle. Perry's flag-ship, the Lawrence, engaged two of the British ships at once, until she was riddled

with shot, and had but eight men left to manage her. Then Perry, bearing his flag away, rowed in an open boat to another of his ships called the Niagara. He was compelled to pass close under the guns of the British, who fired great broadsides at his boat; but he reached the decks of the Niagara in safety and renewed the fight as fiercely as before.

In fifteen minutes more, the British were beaten and the whole squadron surrendered. Perry went back to the sinking Lawrence to receive the swords of the British officers on her deck, after which he sent his celebrated dispatch to General Harrison, "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

Battle of the Thames (1813).—As soon as General Harrison received Perry's dispatch, he resolved to push across the lake and carry the war into Canada. The enemy retreated before him, but he followed closely on their heels, and came up with them on the River Thames (tĕmz). He at once attacked them, broke their line, and, after inflicting a considerable loss, forced them to surrender. Led by Tecumseh, the Indians who were then with the British kept up the fight until their leader was killed, when they scattered and ran in confusion to the shelter of the woods. Michigan was now redeemed.

The Creek War (1814).—To add to the troubles of the United States, Tecumseh had persuaded the Creek Indians in Alabama to make war on the whites. Under their skillful leader, Weath'er ford or Red Eagle, they were for a long time successful, and spread terror through

the South. Finally, in 1814, General Andrew Jackson, with an army of volunteers from Georgia, Tennessee, and Mississippi, defeated Red Eagle in a great battle, and put an end to the trouble with the Creeks.

In July, 1814, General Winfield Scott won two brilliant victories over the British in Canada, one at Chippewa (Chĭp'pe wą) and the other at Lundy's Lane. These victories greatly cheered the Americans; but as they could not be followed up, they otherwise did little good.

In August, a British force marched into Washington City and ruthlessly burned the capitol and other public buildings, together with many private houses.

Battle of Lake Champlain (1814).—In September, the British sent an army of 12,000 men from Canada to capture Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain, and at the same time a strong fleet sailed up the lake. The English plan was to take Plattsburg, clear the lake, and push down along the Hudson River in order to sever New England from the rest of the country. This you remember is exactly what Burgoyne tried to do in the Revolution, but the plan failed this time as it had done before.

There was at the time a force of only 1,500 Americans at Plattsburg, but they stood their ground and kept the British in check. An American fleet, under Commodore McDonough (măk dŏn'oh), sailed down the lake, fell upon the British ships and soon destroyed them. As soon as the British before Plattsburg learned of this, they broke up their camp and hurried back to Canada, without stopping to save even their sick and wounded.

Battle of New Orleans.—The Americans had suffered many reverses during 1814, but toward the end of that year they were threatened with a greater disaster. A powerful British army in a large fleet of vessels sailed

BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.

in December from Pensacola, Florida, for the purpose of taking New Orleans. The British knew that if they secured control of that city they could easily proceed up the Mississippi River and possess the whole western country. There was no American army at New Orleans, and not much chance to form one in time to meet this unlooked-for attack.

General Andrew Jackson hurried to the city from Florida, ordered forward all the troops that were within reach, and turned the citizens into soldiers. This intrepid soldier determined to resist the advance of the enemy, although he had only a handful of men, most of whom had never seen a battle.

He erected forts on the river to repel the British ships; but the forts proved useless, for the ships took another direction. There are lakes just behind New Orleans which lead into the sea by other channels, and the British ran their ships up into one of these lakes. After a fight on the lake, they landed and marched across to the river, a few miles below the town.

Jackson started out at once and fought them in the dark on the night of their arrival. The battle lasted two hours, when, finding that he could do no more, he fell back a short distance and threw up a line of earth-works.

On January 8th, 1815, the British made their grand attack. Their soldiers were the flower of the British army, and being used to hard fighting on the battle-fields of Europe, they did not expect to have much trouble with Jackson's raw recruits. But when they came under the deadly fire of the Tennessee and Kentucky back-woodsmen, they wavered and fell back. Again and again the British rushed headlong at the American line, and each time were driven back by the unerring fire of the riflemen. Their commander, General Pak'en ham, was killed, and two thousand of his men fell before Jackson's line of earth-works. They then gave up

the attempt and returned to their ships a badly beaten army.

Peace Declared (1814).—This was the last battle of the war. A treaty of peace had been signed a short time before the battle was fought, but the news had not reached America.

It is a curious fact that the treaty said nothing at all about the right, claimed by the British, of searching American ships, the very point about which the war was fought. But England has never since claimed that right, and for nearly seventy years the two nations have lived in peace with each other. Indeed, they have in recent years become the best of friends, as it is right that two countries so nearly akin, and speaking the same language, should be.

Punishing the Pirates (1815).—While this war was in progress the piratical states in Northern Africa thought they might safely defy the American power, and began again to seize American ships. Commander Decatur sailed against them with a fleet, captured their ships, entered their harbors, bombarded their towns, and forced them to set free Americans held as captives. From that time to this we have had no trouble with those states.

Politics.—The Federal party was now broken up. It had opposed the war with so much bitterness that many people thought its leaders were traitors, ready to side with the British against their own country. Nearly all who had been Federalists had now become Republicans, and when the time for a new election came around, James Monroe, a Republican, was chosen President almost

without opposition. Four years later, he was re-elected by the votes of all the States.

New States.—Two new States had been admitted into the Union during Madison's administration — Louisiana, in 1812, and Indiana, in 1816.

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

(TWO TERMS—1817-1825.)

The Era of Good Feeling.—The time covered by Monroe's administration was called the "era of good feeling", because there was no longer any difference in party politics, and the people were prosperous and happy. Monroe had been the almost universal choice for President. The country was rapidly filling up with people, business was good, towns were growing, new States were coming into the Union, and there was no prospect of war with any other nation.

The Missouri Compromise (1820).—Slavery had gradually been dying out at the North, because free labor had been found more profitable there than slave labor; but in the South, where the climate is extremely warm, negroes were found to be necessary in raising tobacco, cotton, rice, and other crops, therefore, in that section, slavery had grown stronger than ever.

When Missouri applied for admission to the Union as a slave State, a great dispute arose about it in Congress. Many people in the South contended that there ought to be a new slave State for every new free State, so that

the North and the South should have equal representation in the United States Senate.

The quarrel became very bitter, but was settled at last by Henry Clay, who persuaded both sides to agree to what was called the Missouri Compromise. This provided that Missouri should be admitted as a slave State; but that no more slave States should be made out of that part of the Louisiana Purchase lying north of the southern boundary line of Missouri. South of that line, the new States might have slaves if they chose.

Florida.—There had been a good deal of trouble with Spain about Florida, and finally the matter was settled, in 1819, by a treaty, under which that territory became part of the United States by purchase.

New States.—Five new States came into the Union during Monroe's time, as follows: Mississippi, in 1817; Illinois, in 1818; Alabama, in 1819; Maine, in 1820; and Missouri, in 1821.

Politics.—While the spirit of good feeling continued to prevail for a long time after Monroe became President, the people could not, of course, go on forever thinking alike in politics. New interests arose, new questions came up, and so the people again arranged themselves in two opposing parties. The new party, afterward called the Whig party, wanted to keep up a great United States Bank; the Republicans, who were now called Democrats, thought such a bank, with its vast power and influence, dangerous to the liberties of the people.

The Whigs wanted the national government to spend

money liberally on internal improvements, such as digging canals, making roads, building bridges, constructing harbors, and other public works; the Democrats thought that the separate States should attend to all such affairs for themselves.

The Tariff Question (1824).—But the greatest dispute of the time was about the tariff duty. The Whigs favored high duties on such things, imported from Europe, as could be made in this country. They claimed that, since it cost more to manufacture goods here than in other countries, American manufacturers could not compete successfully with the people who brought such things from abroad. They therefore maintained that a heavy tax, or duty, ought to be put on the foreign goods, so as to raise their price. This would make them more costly than American goods. People would then buy the goods made here, because they were cheaper than those brought from other countries.

This, they said, would build up our own manufactures, would protect and encourage American skill and enterprise, and, while giving a market to American farmers for their produce, at the same time would afford constant employment, at good wages, to the laboring classes of our people.

The Democrats, on the other hand, held that high duties on foreign goods only resulted in making prices high for the special benefit of the few who owned factories. They contended that the government ought to leave the people perfectly free to buy goods wherever they could be bought the cheapest. If duties were low,

a great many foreign goods would come into the country, they would be cheaper than American goods, and the cost of living would be less. The Democrats claimed that under their plan more money would go to the government for the duties, thus relieving the people of the burdens of taxation.

This interesting question, whether duties should be high or low, is still a warmly disputed one in the United States, and enters more or less into every Presidential election.

Politics.—At the next election, the votes were divided among four candidates, no one of whom had a majority. Under the law, the lower house of Congress was now compelled to choose one of the four for President. The choice fell upon the Whig candidate, John Quincy Adams, a son of John Adams. This is the only case in the history of the country, in which the son of a President has become President.

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS' ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1825-1829.)

Condition of the Country (1825).—The country was rapidly growing in wealth and in the number of its people. Great canals were opened, making it easier and cheaper to transport the products of the country from one place to another, and business accordingly improved. The first railroad was built, in 1827, at Quincy, Massachusetts. It was only three miles long, and the cars were drawn by horses until 1829, when an engine was brought over from

England. That was the beginning of our great system of railroads, which now cover the country like a net-work.

The Tariff Question.—President Adams, being a Whig, favored a high tariff; and a law, placing heavy duties on foreign manufactures, was made early in his term. This gave a great impetus to business in New England, where factories most abounded; but in other parts of the country, especially in the South and West, people did not like the law. When the time for election came around, instead of choosing Adams for another term, the people elected Andrew Jackson as President. John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, was elected Vice-President. Jackson, as you remember, was the hero of New Orleans, and, at the time, there was no man more popular in the country.

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

(TWO TERMS—1829-1837.)

Troubles over the Tariff (1832).—Jackson was not an educated man. He was blunt in speech, and his manners were rough. But he had much sterling common sense, and was a very bold, resolute man, who always did what he thought was right, no matter what stood in his way. While he was President, South Carolina passed a State law (1832), permitting foreign goods to come into that State without paying the duties ordered by Congress. The people of South Carolina threatened, if the government tried to enforce the tariff law there, to take their State out of the Union.

Jackson, like most Democrats of the time, was not in favor of a high tariff, but he meant to enforce the laws of his country, whether they suited him or not. He, therefore, issued a proclamation in which he insisted that the duties should be paid in South Carolina as in other States, and announced that he would not permit the State to leave the Union. To show his determination, he sent war ships and soldiers to Charleston.

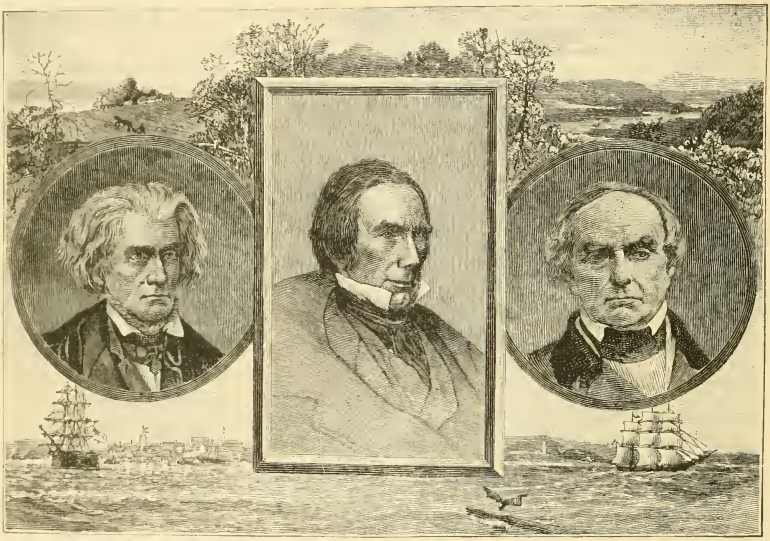
ANDREW JACKSON.

For a while bitter passions were aroused all over the country by this event, and people thought that civil war would ensue; but Henry Clay again came forward as a peace-maker, and persuaded Congress to pass another compromise bill. Under this bill, the duties on foreign goods were to be lowered by degrees. With this arrangement both sides were satisfied.

The Bank Troubles (1832).—The United States Bank had now been doing business for a good many years. The law authorizing the bank gave it permission to continue business until 1836, but its managers wanted it to go on after that date. In 1832, therefore, they asked Congress to grant them a new charter, and a bill granting it was passed by both houses of Congress.

But something more was necessary before this bill could become a law—the President must approve it. According to the Constitution, the President may either

approve or reject a bill which has passed Congress. If he approves it, he signs it, and the bill becomes a law; but he may reject it, or veto it, as it is called, in which case it does not become a law.



CALHOUN. CLAY. WEBSTER.

Being a Democrat, President Jackson was strongly opposed to the United States Bank, and vetoed the bill to extend its charter. Soon afterward the election took place, and as the people re-elected him as President for a second term by a vast majority, he felt that they approved what he had already done.

But the bank could still carry on business until 1836, and it meanwhile had possession of all the government

money. As this money was necessary to the bank, Jackson decided, in 1833, to take it away. His cabinet officers tried to dissuade him from his purpose, but he peremptorily ordered the money to be withdrawn and deposited in various State banks. This summary action created great excitement throughout the country. After struggling for a year or two longer to maintain itself, the bank had to give up business, and the stockholders lost every thing.

Indian Wars. — There were two Indian wars during Jackson's administration. One of these was (1832) with the Sac and Fox Indians, in the North-west; and, as the Indian leader was named Black Hawk, the war is called the Black Hawk War. The Indians were soon brought to terms.

The other war (1835) was a long and terrible one with the Sem'i noles of Florida, under a chief named Os ce o'la. This war was brought about by an attempt to remove that tribe to another part of the country. The Indians lived in the swamps, or everglades, where it was difficult for the soldiers to reach them; and, as they fought fiercely, many lives were lost. The war cost the United States thirty millions of dollars before the Seminoles were fully subdued.

New States.—Two new States came into the Union during Jackson's administration—Arkansas, in 1836, and Michigan, in 1837.

Politics. — At the next election, the Democratic candidate, Martin Van Buren, was chosen President.

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1837-1841.)

The Panic of 1837.—When Van Buren took his seat as President, the business of the country had been rapidly growing for several years. Towns were springing up all over the West. Men bought lands and town lots on credit, and sold them again at fabulous prices on credit. The banks lent money freely. Great quantities of foreign goods were brought into the country for sale, and business everywhere was good.

It was a time of wild speculation, when every one seemed to be getting rich. But, buying as they did chiefly on credit, many people plunged themselves heavily into debt in the hope of making fortunes. Soon after Van Buren became President, the crash came. Within two months, there were failures in New York City alone for a hundred millions of dollars.

The panic soon spread over the country. Bank after bank suspended, merchants closed their stores, factories stopped work, prices fell, and many of the new towns, where lots had been selling for hundreds of dollars, were deserted, and the land was worth nothing at all. Thousands of people were out of work and destitute.

Eight of the States were bankrupt, and even the general government found it difficult to get money enough for its current expenses. The interest on the public debt was delayed, because the banks that held the government money could not pay. After a time the panic ceased;

but thousands of people were ruined by it, and it was years before the country began to prosper again.

Politics.—Many of the people thought that the great panic had been caused by the manner in which the Democrats managed the government, and especially its money affairs; and so at the next election they chose the Whig candidate, General William Henry Harrison, of Ohio, for President.

HARRISON AND TYLER'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1841-1845.)

Death of Harrison.—One month after taking his seat as President, General Harrison died, and John Tyler, who was Vice-President, became President for the rest of the term.

Tyler's Vetoes.—The Whigs, as we know, were in favor of a United States Bank, and President Tyler, in a message, requested Congress to pass a bill to establish one. But when the bill was passed, Tyler, to the surprise of everybody, vetoed it. Congress then passed another bill, to which, it was thought, the President could raise no objection; but that he also vetoed.

Tyler's action, in thus going contrary to the expressed wishes of his party, caused intense excitement. All the members of the cabinet, except Daniel Webster, resigned. The Whigs, who had elected Tyler, were deeply incensed at his course, and heaped denunciations upon him as a "renegade" and a "turn-coat". His friends, how-

ever, said that he had always been more of a Democrat than a Whig.

Annexation of Texas (1845).—The most important event that occurred during Tyler's time was the annexation of Texas. After a long and bloody war with Mexico, Texas had become an independent country. Its chief men were Americans who had gone there to live, and they naturally desired to make that country a part of the United States.

When Congress was asked to admit Texas to the Union, a political controversy arose about it similar to that which took place in the case of Missouri. Slaves were then held in Texas, and those in this country who opposed slavery, were equally opposed to adding so much slave territory to the Union. Texas is nearly forty times as large as Massachusetts, and Northern men thought that if so large a slave-holding region should be admitted, the free States would always be outvoted in Congress.

Besides this, there was an unsettled dispute between Texas and Mexico about the boundary line of the two countries; and it was quite certain that we should have to fight Mexico if Texas was taken into the Union.

For a while, Congress would not consent to the admission of Texas; but at the election for President, in November, 1844, the people chose James K. Polk, who had warmly favored the annexation, over Henry Clay, who had as strongly opposed it. As the people had thus indicated their wishes on the subject, Congress passed a

resolution to annex, and President Tyler signed it just three days before he went out of office.

But there were still some important matters to be settled before Texas could legally become one of the States of the Union, and, accordingly, it did not formally come in until near the end of the following year.

Florida.—On the last day of Tyler's term, a new State, Florida, was admitted to the Union.

The Telegraph.—Professor Samuel F. B. Morse had been at work for several years on his telegraph, and the first item of news sent over the first telegraph line in this country, which stretched between Washington and Baltimore, announced the nomination of James K. Polk for the Presidency. From this small beginning, which was but a mere experiment, has been developed the great telegraph system of the United States.

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1845-1849.)

The War with Mexico.—When Texas came into the Union, near the end of the year 1845, it brought with it its old quarrel with Mexico. Texas and Mexico, as we have already remarked, had never been able to agree about the boundary line between the two countries. Texas maintained that the Rio Grande (ree'ō grän'dā) was the proper line separating the territory of the two countries, while Mexico claimed that her borders extended as far north as the Nueces (nwā'sĕs) River.

There was, accordingly, a valuable strip of country, more than a hundred miles wide, in dispute.

In 1846, Polk sent General Zachary Taylor, with a small army, to hold the disputed territory against the Mexicans. This, of course, was a direct challenge to Mexico, which she promptly accepted.

The Mexicans at once sent a larger army to oppose Taylor, and in May the two forces met at Palo Alto (päh'lō ähl'tō), and a battle was fought. Taylor had only about two thousand men against six thousand Mexicans; but, undismayed by the superior force of the enemy, he launched his little army against them, and, after a desperate contest of five hours, beat them badly, driving them from the field.

The next day he came up with them again at Resaca de la Palma (rā sä'kä dā lä päl'mä), and, after a fierce struggle, drove them across the Rio Grande, with the loss of their stores and camp equipage.

The Plan of the War (1846).—War was now fairly begun between the two countries, and there was nothing to do but fight it out to the bitter end. At the call of the President, volunteers came forward from all parts of the Union, eager to fight the Mexicans. The plan of campaign for the American forces was for Taylor to march his army into Mexico and take the principal places in the northern part of that country, while General Winfield Scott, with another army, should land at Vera Cruz (vā'rä krōōth), on the sea-coast, and fight his way across the country to the city of Mexico itself.

MAP TO ILLUSTRATE
WAR WITH MEXICO
SCALE OF MILES
0 100 200 300 400 500
TERRITORY ACQUIRED BY THE UNITED STATES FORMERLY A PART OF MEXICO
Boundary of Mexico previous to the War
Boundary of the United States previous to the annexation of Texas
Present Boundary of Mexico
IDAHO
WYOMING
S. DAKOTA
NEBRASKA
IOWA
MISSOURI
KANSAS
OKLAHOMA
ARKANSAS
COLORADO
UTAH
NEVADA
CALIFORNIA
ARIZONA
NEW MEXICO
TEXAS
MEXICO
LOWER CALIFORNIA
GULF OF CALIFORNIA
SIERRA MADRE
CORDILLERAS
GULF OF MEXICO
PACIFIC OCEAN
Great Salt Lake
Salt Lake City
South Pass
ROCKY MTS.
Platte R.
Missouri R.
FT. LEAVENWORTH
BENT'S FORT
Arkansas R.
Red R.
Brazos R.
Sabine R.
Colorado R.
Gila R.
Pecos R.
Rio Grande del Norte
Rio Grande
Nueces R.
Conchos R.
Tropic of Cancer
Los Angeles
San Gabriel
SANTA FE
Las Vegas
Bracito
El Paso
Sacramento
Chihuahua
San Fernando
Santa Rosa
Monclova
San Antonio
San Jacinto
Battle Gr.
Galveston
Corpus Christi
Matamoras
Monterey
Saltillo
Parras
Aqua Nueva
Buena Vista
Durango
Victoria
San Luis Potosi
Tampico
Lobos I.
Tuspan
Jalapa
Castle S.J. d'Ulloa
Vera Cruz
Puebla
MEXICO
Acapulco
Tehuantepec
Balsas R.
Rio Grande de Santiago
Chapala
40
30

At the same time, General Stephen W. Kearney (kär′nĭ), starting with a force from Fort Leavenworth, was to cross the Rocky Mountains and take California and New Mexico. All this, as we shall see, was brilliantly carried out, although the Mexicans always had two or three times as many men as were sent against them.

General Taylor's Campaign (1846).—General Taylor crossed the Rio Grande, and began his campaign by taking Mat a mo′ras. In September, he pushed forward with six thousand men to attack Monterey (mōn tā rā′). This was a very daring movement. Monterey lay among the mountains, and it was difficult even to get near it. The Mexicans had built a series of strong forts on the surrounding hills for its defense, and had ten thousand men ready to oppose Taylor's army. But the American general, with his inferior force, boldly attacked the place.

ZACHARY TAYLOR.

The Americans fought for four days before they could drive the Mexicans from their outer works, and when that was done, they had to take the town little by little, fighting them from street to street, and from house to house.

During the winter, General Taylor was compelled to send part of his army to the assistance of General Scott. Santa Anna (sän′tä än′ä), the Mexican commander, learn-

ing of this movement, thought it a good opportunity to capture or destroy Taylor's small force.

Santa Anna now marched, with twenty thousand men, to the mountain pass of Buena Vista (bwā'nä vees'tä), where the Americans were posted. His army

GENERAL TAYLOR AT BUENA VISTA.

was so large, and Taylor's so small, that he thought Taylor would certainly surrender without a battle. When he was told by an American officer that "General Taylor never surrenders", he made a fierce attack.

For a while, it seemed as though the Americans would be slaughtered; but Taylor, at a critical moment in the

battle, ordered up Captain Bragg's artillery, which began to pour a fire of grape-shot into the Mexican ranks. Seeing the Mexicans waver, he cried out, "A little more grape, Captain Bragg", and a few minutes later the Mexican army was running in confusion from the field.

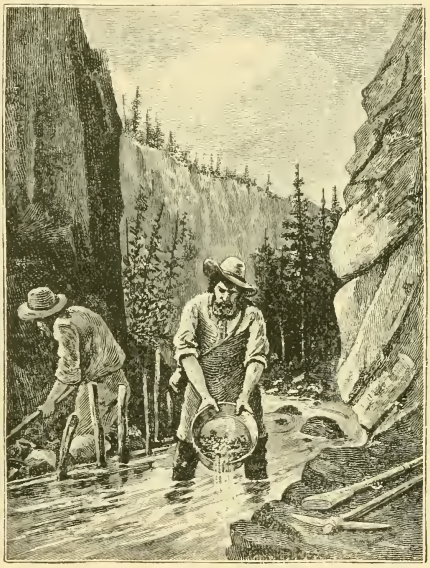
General Scott's Campaign (1847).—General Scott, with twelve thousand men, landed at Vera Cruz in March, and immediately invested the place. After four days of fighting, the town and the fortress that guarded it surrendered. He then began his march inland toward the City of Mexico. The road led through mountain gorges, and swarms of Mexican soldiers stood ready to fight at every available point. But Scott, knowing that he could trust in the valor and endurance of his men, marched boldly on.

He took by storm Cer'ro Gor'do, where the Mexicans had an army of fifteen thousand men behind earthworks, and captured three thousand prisoners, among whom were four general officers. Then he pushed on to Puebla (pwĕb'lah), which yielded without resistance, and, after waiting there some time for re-enforcements, again marched toward the City of Mexico.

He stormed one great fortress after another, and in September entered in triumph the capital of the country. He had, with his small force, overcome an army of thirty thousand men, and now, with less than six thousand men, he marched into, and held, a hostile city containing one hundred and forty thousand people.

The Result of the War (1848).—This ended the war

Kearney and Fremont had taken California and New Mexico, while Scott and Taylor had conquered Mexico itself. When a treaty of peace was made, it was agreed that the Rio Grande should thereafter be the boundary line between Texas and Mexico, and that the United States should have all the region then known as California and New Mexico.

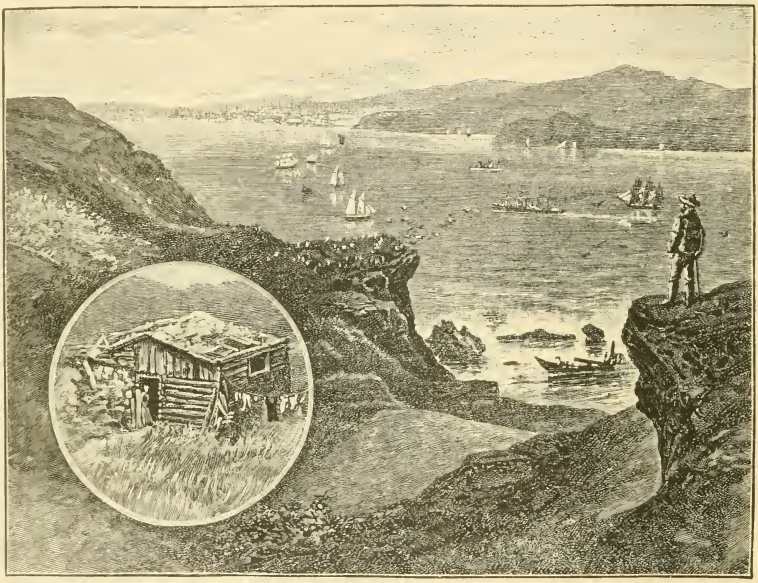


WASHING OUT GOLD.

This territory included what is now California and Nevada, and the region east of that to the Rio Grande. For all this, the United States agreed to pay fifteen millions of dollars.

Discovery of Gold in California (1848).—The country thus bought was very thinly settled, and at first did not seem to be of much value. The Spaniards, as we may remember, tramped all over it three hundred years before, searching everywhere for gold. They had held it ever since, first as Spanish and then as Mexican territory, but had found no gold, and really made no serious attempts toward settling the country.

Almost as soon as it came into the possession of the United States, a great change took place. A workman, while mending a mill-dam on the Sacramento River, accidentally found the gold which had been so long sought



SAN FRANCISCO IN 1835, AND NOW.

in vain, and it soon became known that the richest gold mines in the world were in California.

The news of this discovery spread swiftly all over the world. Men flocked to California by thousands and tens of thousands. Towns grew up there almost in a night. At first, everybody wanted to dig for gold; but there were such swarms of people to be fed and clothed, that many

found it even more profitable to open shops and stores, and to cultivate farms. In 1846, the population of San Francisco did not exceed 600 souls; but within two years it had increased to nearly 35,000. Its beautiful bay, which before the war was only frequented by an occasional whaling ship, was now white with the sails of vessels from almost every nation. Indeed, California had grown so rapidly in population that, in less than three years after the Mexican War, it was ready to come into the Union as a great, rich State.

Slavery Agitation (1848).—The old difference of opinion about slavery had been growing all this time. Consequently, when the Mexican War was over, one of the first things people thought about was whether the territory wrested from Mexico should be slave or free. David Wilmot, a representative from Pennsylvania, had tried, in 1846, to induce Congress to make a law that slavery should not be allowed in any part of the region that might be acquired from Mexico as a result of the war. The proposed law was popularly known as the Wilmot Proviso. Congress did not make the law; but the violent discussion of the subject which followed, by newspapers and politicians, kept the entire country, for almost two years, in a ferment of excitement.

Politics.—As a result of this agitation, many Whigs and Democrats, anxious to stop the spread of slavery, now left the old parties and formed a new one, calling it the Free-soil party.

This party was very small at first; but its numbers

held together, and, in 1848, voted for Martin Van Buren, of New York, for President. The Democrats voted for Lewis Cass, of Michigan, and the Whigs for General Zachary Taylor, who had won so much fame for himself in the Mexican War. Taylor was elected, with Millard Fillmore as Vice-President.

New States.—Three new States were admitted to the Union during Polk's administration—Texas, in 1845; Iowa, in 1846; and Wisconsin, in 1848.

TAYLOR AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1849-1853.)

The Compromise of 1850.—The western part of California filled up with people so rapidly that it was ready, in 1850, to enter the Union as a State, leaving the eastern part to be divided into Territories. The people then made a constitution for themselves, and asked Congress for admission to the Union as a free State. This at once stirred up again the old controversy about slavery, which became so angry and bitter that Henry Clay, who had settled the dispute of 1820 by the Missouri Compromise, now came forward with a plan to arrange this difficulty.

After a warm debate, Congress passed the measures which he proposed. California was to be admitted as a free State, and all slave-trading in the District of Columbia, where Washington City stands, was to be stopped. This was to satisfy the people in the North.

To satisfy the Southern people, a law was passed that if slaves ran away, their masters might go after them into any of the States, and take them back without recourse to a jury trial. This law was called the Fugitive-Slave Law. General Taylor died in July, before the bill was passed, and Fillmore, the Vice-President, became President.

Politics. — The new law, which was meant to settle the quarrel about slavery, only made it worse, and many people abandoned the old parties and joined the new one. The Free-soil party, however, was still small, and when the election took place, in 1852, the Democrats elected Franklin Pierce (peers'), of New Hampshire, for the next President.

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1853-1857.)

The Kansas-Nebraska Bill (1853).—Pierce's term was a time of great excitement. Stephen A. Douglas, a Senator from Illinois, brought a bill into Congress to organize the Territories of Kansas and Nebraska. These Territories were north of the Missouri Compromise line, and so, according to the terms of the compromise, slavery was forbidden in them.

But the bill put forward by Senator Douglas provided that, when the two Territories should get ready to come into the Union as States, the people living in them, who were called "squatters", might decide for themselves

whether they wished them to be free States or slave States. A storm of angry debate arose over this bill, and the people all over the country became greatly excited. The bill was passed in 1854.

Civil War in Kansas (1856).—As soon as this bill became a law, men from all parts of the country hurried to Kansas. The Northern men hoped to outnumber the Southerners, and so outvote them when the time should come to make a constitution. If they could do that, Kansas would come into the Union as a free State. On the other hand, the Southerners hoped to outnumber and outvote the Northern men, and so make Kansas a slave State. Kansas was now the scene of a desperate struggle between the friends and the opponents of slavery.

Bitter passions were aroused on both sides, and the State was soon plunged in a civil war. Two different constitutions were formed by two rival conventions, each of which claimed to be legally elected by the people. One constitution was for a slave State, the other for a free State. The fighting continued, towns were burned, and many people were killed.

Politics (1856).—Although the fighting was confined to Kansas, the excitement spread to every part of the country, and the slavery question, which had been so long allayed by compromises, became the most important one in politics. Most of the Whigs in the North had joined the Free-soil party, which now changed its name to the Republican party. The Southern Whigs joined

the Democrats, while many Northern Democrats went over to the Republicans. The Whig party was now extinct.

In the Presidential election of 1856, there were three candidates. The Democrats voted for James Buchanan (bū kăn'an), the Republicans for John C. Fremont, and the Know-Nothings, or Native-American party, for Millard Fillmore. Fillmore carried one State, Fremont eleven, and Buchanan nineteen. Accordingly, James Buchanan, of Pennsylvania, was elected.

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1857-1861.)

The Quarrel about Slavery (1857).—Buchanan's term was, from the outset, a stormy one. The excitement about slavery grew greater every day. The law that Congress passed in 1850, giving slave-holders the right to go into free States for their runaway slaves, was so offensive to the Northern people that some of the Northern States passed what were known as Personal Liberty laws which, in effect, nullified the national law.

In many cases, mobs rescued negroes who had been caught by their owners, and who were about to be taken back to the South. Finally two events occurred which made both sides more angry than ever.

The Dred Scott Case (1857).—One of them was called the Dred Scott decision. It was the law in the free States that, if the owner of slaves brought any of them into a free State, they should be free; but in the Dred

Scott case, the Supreme Court of the United States decided that all such laws made by the States were unconstitutional, that is to say, they were contrary to the constitution and therefore had no force, and that a slave-owner might take his slaves to any part of the country without losing his right to them.

The Northern people loudly protested against this decision. They said that it simply removed all barriers against the extension of slavery, made all the States slave States, and that they would never submit to so great an injustice.

John Brown's Raid (1859).—The other event was what is known as John Brown's raid. John Brown was one of the leaders of the free State men in Kansas. He was an ardent anti-slavery man, and, in 1859, he resolved to wage war against slavery in the South itself. He got together a small body of men, suddenly entered the town of Harper's Ferry, in Virginia, and seized the arsenal there, which belonged to the United States. He proposed to overthrow the State government, set the negroes free, and place arms in their hands.

But his little company was soon overcome and captured by a force of United States marines sent from Washington, while Brown was delivered up to the Virginia authorities, by whom he was tried for conspiracy, treason, and murder. He was hanged Dec. 2, 1859.

Politics.—The John Brown raid fanned the flame of sectional passion to such a degree that there was now no question in politics except that of slavery. The

Democratic party was still the strongest political party in the country; but the slavery controversy rent it in two, and in 1860, when the time for election came around, it had two candidates for President, Stephen A. Douglas, of Illinois, being one, and John C. Breckinridge, of Kentucky, the other.

Douglas represented the Northern Democrats, who, though not in favor of the extension of slavery to the Territories, yet believed that the inhabitants of each Territory, and they alone, had the right to say whether it should come into the Union as a slave State or as a free State.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Breckinridge, on the other hand, represented the extreme Southern Democrats, who insisted that neither Congress nor the people of the Territories had the right to prohibit slavery in any Territory.

The Republicans, who were determined to exclude slavery from the Territories at any cost, voted for Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, while a small party of old Whigs and others voted for John Bell. The election was carried by the Republican candidate, who secured the electoral vote of every free State except New Jersey.

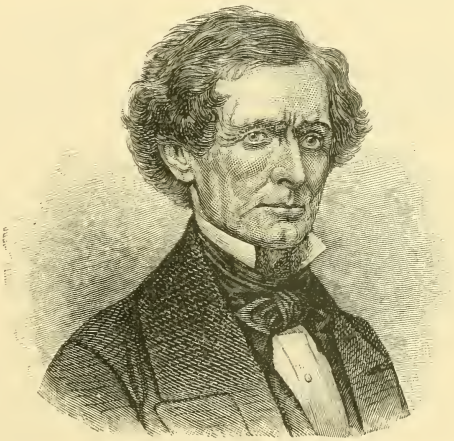
Secession of the Southern States (1860).—Abraham Lincoln was elected in November, 1860; but his term of office did not begin until the following March. As soon as the election was over, several of the Southern States prepared to leave the Union. A great many of the leading men of the South had always held that the Union was not perpetual, but only a league or partnership among the States, and that any State had the right to withdraw from the Union whenever it chose to do so. The people of that section, therefore, believing that the election of Mr. Lincoln was a menace to slavery, now decided to secede and set up a government for themselves.

South Carolina led the movement, and declared herself out of the Union in December. Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas, quickly followed, seizing such forts, arsenals, and navy-yards of the government as were within their respective borders. The other Southern States waited, in the vain hope that the trouble would be settled in some peaceful way.

The States that had passed acts of secession united and formed a government, calling themselves the Confederate States of America. A convention of delegates, or representatives from these States, met at Montgomery, Alabama, and drew up a constitution for the new government, which closely followed that of the United States, except that slavery was forever legalized, and a protective tariff prohibited. They chose Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, for their President, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, for Vice-President.

The whole country was now anxious. Many plans were proposed to adjust the trouble, but they all failed; and, through that long winter, every day brought the country nearer and nearer to the verge of civil war.

The position of the administration in this emergency was one of great difficulty and perplexity. The various officers, representing the United States in the revolted States, judges, marshals, collectors of customs, postmasters, and district-attorneys, had all resigned, to follow the fortunes of their States; and there was, therefore, no way in which the government could exercise its authority in those States.



JEFFERSON DAVIS.

Mr. Buchanan, as President of the United States could not and would not admit that it was within the power of any State to secede at its pleasure, and yet he doubted his right, under the Constitution, to force the seceding States back by warlike measures, even if he had an army and a navy large enough to do so. But he had neither, and Congress refused to give him authority to raise them. It was evident, therefore, that

nothing would be done, one way or the other, until the new President should take his seat on the 4th of March following.

New States.—Three new States were added to the Union during the administration of James Buchanan—namely, Minnesota, in 1858; Oregon, in 1859; and Kansas, in 1861.

QUESTIONS.

1. When did England make a treaty giving up all claim to the colonies?
2. How many States were there at the close of the Revolutionary War? What powers did each claim for itself? What control did the general government have over the States? What was the condition of trade?—of the people?
3. What State took the lead in trying to better matters? What was the result of the first convention? When and where did the second convention meet? Explain the views of the two political parties of the time.
4. When was a national Constitution agreed upon? What powers were granted to each State?—to the general government? When was this Constitution accepted by the States? What was the extent of the national territory?
5. Who was chosen as the first President of the United States? What duties were to be performed by the new government? How did the people feel toward the President? In what ways did they show their affection?
6. Whom did Washington select as his chief advisers in carrying on the government? What was the cause of the Whiskey Rebellion? What effect did its suppression have upon the nation? Tell about the treaty with Spain;—the treaty with England. What was the feeling of the American people toward France? What two political parties were formed? What were the opinions held by the Republicans?—by the Federalists? Who were the candidates for President at the close of Washington's term? Who was elected?
7. How many States were there in the Union when Adams went into office? Give the names of the new States, and the year when each was admitted. What was the condition of the country? What was the cause of the quarrel with France? Explain the Alien and Sedition Laws. What did the people do at the next election? How was Jefferson, the third President, chosen?
8. When did the war with Tripoli take place? What was the cause of the war? How many ships were sent against Tripoli? Tell about Decatur's adventure. What was accomplished afterward? When was Louisiana purchased

from the French? Why was that territory of so much importance to the United States? Name the States formed from it. In what manner, and when, was the slave-trade declared unlawful? What was the cause of our quarrel with England? What was the Embargo Act? How did it affect our shipping interests? What were the grounds of contest between parties at the next Presidential election? Who was chosen President? Who ran the first steam-boat on the Hudson River?

9. What acts of the British led the United States to declare war? When and where did General Harrison defeat the Indians? How did the Federalists act in regard to the war with England? Tell about General Hull's surrender;—the fight between the Constitution and Guerrière;—the invasion of Canada in 1813;—Perry's victory on Lake Erie;—the battle of the Thames;—the Creek War;—General Scott's victories in Canada;—the battle of Lake Champlain;—the battle of New Orleans. When was peace declared? How were the pirates of Northern Africa punished? Why was the Federalist party broken up? Who was elected as the fifth President? What States were added to the Union during Madison's two terms?

10. Why was Monroe's administration called the "Era of good feeling"? What was the condition of slavery in the North?—in the South? What dispute took place when Missouri asked to enter the Union? How was it settled? Give the particulars of the Compromise. When was Florida purchased of Spain? Give names of the five new States admitted during Monroe's administration. What were the names of the great political parties? What were the views of the Whigs?—of the Democrats? Explain the two sides of the Tariff question. How many candidates were voted for at the next election? Whom did the House of Representatives choose as President?

11. What improvements were made during Adams' administration? Tell about the first railroad. What were Adams' views about the tariff? How was the country divided upon the question? Who was chosen as the seventh President?

12. What was the character of Jackson? When did South Carolina try to abolish the duties on foreign goods? What did Jackson do? How was the trouble finally settled? Tell about the United States Bank. What action did Jackson take against the bank? What Indian war took place in 1832?—in 1835? What new States came into the Union?—give dates of their admission. Who was elected as the next President?

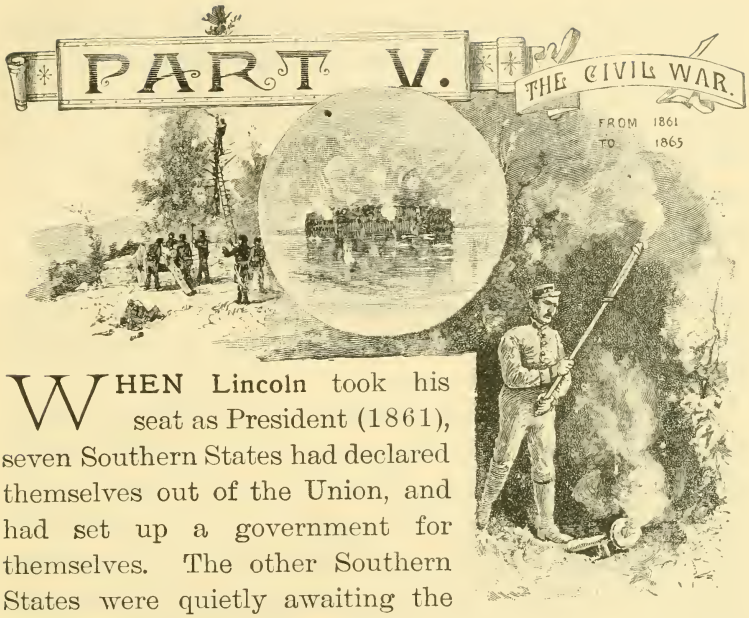
13. What was the condition of business? Tell about the "Panic of 1837". Who was elected as the ninth President?

14. When did President Harrison die? Who succeeded him as President? What bills did Tyler veto? When did Texas apply for admission to the Union? What objections were made to admitting her? In what way did the nation express its wishes? When was the bill to admit Texas passed? When did the new State enter the Union? When was Florida admitted as a State? Tell about the telegraph.

15. What was the cause of the war with Mexico? When did Polk send Taylor into Texas? What were the first two battles fought with the Mexicans? What plan was adopted for the war? Tell about the battle of Monterey;—Buena Vista;—Vera Cruz;—Cerro Gordo;—the capture of Mexico. What was the result of the war? What territory was ceded by Mexico to the United States? When was gold discovered in California? What was the effect of the discovery? When did California apply for admission to the Union? What troubles then grew out of the slavery question? What was the Wilmot Proviso? What new political party was formed? Who was elected as the twelfth President?
16. What were the terms of the Compromise of 1850? When did President Taylor die? Who succeeded him? What effect had the Fugitive-Slave Law upon politics? Who was elected as the fourteenth President?
17. Tell about the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. What difficulties arose in Kansas? What effect had the slavery excitement upon politics? Name the candidates of each party for President in 1856. Who was elected?
18. What feeling in regard to slavery grew up between the North and the South? State the facts in regard to the Dred Scott decision. Give an account of John Brown's Raid. How were politics affected by the result? Tell about the different candidates for President in 1860. Who was elected? What action did South Carolina take? What other Southern States followed her example? What name was given to these States? Who were chosen as their President and Vice-President? What was the condition of affairs in the North? What course did President Buchanan follow? For what event did the whole country wait? Name the new States admitted into the Union. In what year was each received?
19. Name in their order the States admitted to the Union from the adoption of the Constitution to the election of Lincoln. Name the Presidents in their order from Washington to Lincoln. How many of them were elected for a second term?—how many and which of them for only one term?

FOR READING OR RECITATION.

Old Ironsides.—Holmes.
Osceola.—A. B. Street.
The Biglow Papers.—Lowell.
The Angels of Buena Vista.—Whittier.
The American Flag.—Drake.
The Arsenal at Springfield.—Longfellow.
Freedom.—Lowell.
The Star Spangled Banner.—F. S. Key.
Perry's Victory on Lake Erie.—J. G. Percival.
Hail Columbia.—J. Hopkinson.
The Slave-ship.—Montgomery.
The African Chief.—Bryant.
The Ship of State.—Longfellow.
The Defenders of New Orleans.—Drake.
The Present Crisis (1845).—Lowell.



WHEN **Lincoln** took his seat as President (1861), seven Southern States had declared themselves out of the Union, and had set up a government for themselves. The other Southern States were quietly awaiting the course of events. It was not certain what they would do; but they all claimed that any State had a right to leave the Union whenever it pleased.

In the North, most people held that no State could leave the Union; but there was a great difference of opinion as to what ought to be done. Some said that the Southern States should be brought back by force, while others thought it would be better to let them go in peace. Many of the most eminent and patriotic men of the country held the latter opinion for a while.

President Lincoln, who was a man of calm wisdom and discretion, hoped to settle the question peaceably.

He declared in his inaugural address that he did not intend to interfere with slavery in the Southern States, and, furthermore, that he had no right to do so; but at the same time he made it plainly understood that he was determined to enforce the laws everywhere, and to recover the forts and arsenals, the property of the United States, which the people of the South had seized.

The matter had gone too far to be settled peaceably, however. The Southern States had determined not to come back into the Union on any terms, and the United States would not agree to this.

Bombardment of Fort Sumter (1861).—While matters were in this uncertain state, an event occurred which made war certain. Major Robert Anderson, with a small company of United States troops, held Fort Sumter, in Charleston harbor. This was one of the few fortresses in the South which had not been captured by the seceding States. The Confederates, as the Southerners were called, demanded its surrender. Major Anderson refused, whereupon the Confederates, under General Beauregard (bō′re gärd), bombarded the fort. The fire was kept up for nearly two days and nights, when Anderson, finding his supply of food and ammunition almost exhausted, was forced to surrender. He was allowed to salute his flag with the honors of war, and take his men to the North, instead of giving them up as prisoners.

The Effect.—When this news was telegraphed over the country, everybody, on both sides, abandoned all hope of peace, and began to get ready for war. Presi-

dent Lincoln called for seventy-five thousand militiamen, who offered themselves at once.

There was a similar effect in the South. Virginia, North Carolina, Arkansas, and Tennessee, hesitating no longer, severed their connection with the Union and joined the Confederacy. Virginians seized the arsenal at Harper's Ferry and the navy-yard at Norfolk (nôr'fawk), with its vast stores of cannon and war materials. While all this was going on, Southern volunteers were pouring into Richmond, and Northern volunteers were hurrying on to Washington.

The greatest war of modern times was now about to begin. It was to be a terrible conflict, for it was to be a struggle of Americans against Americans. The armies were made up of the very best men in the North and the South; and when the war was once fairly begun, it was certain that neither side would submit until forced to do so.

First Movements of the Armies (1861).—The volunteers on both sides were good material of which to make soldiers, but at first they were not good soldiers. They had to be taught many things; they had to learn how to march and how to fight battles. For a while, therefore, very little was done on either side except to get ready. The Union troops crossed the Potomac at Washington, and took Alexandria and Arlington. There they threw up fortifications to prevent the Confederates from reaching Washington. The Southerners had established their chief camp at Manas'sas Junction, in Virginia, and

their line was along a creek, called Bull Run, about twenty-five miles from Washington.

During the spring and early summer, General McClellan, with a Union army, marched into western Virginia, where the people were mostly on the Union side. He

BATTLE OF BULL RUN.

and General Rosecrans (rō′ze krăns) having gained several small battles, secured control of that region.

About two years later, while the war was still going on, Virginia was divided, and the western part of it came into the Union as the State of West Virginia.

Battle of Bull Run (1861).—The first real battle of the war was fought at Bull Run, on the 21st of July,

1861. The Confederate army, under General Beauregard, was stretched along Bull Run Creek, and General Irvin McDowell, with the Union army, went out to attack it. Each army numbered about twenty thousand men. The men on both sides were new to the work of fighting; but they were brave and full of enthusiasm. For many hours the battle was so hotly contested that it was doubtful which side would win; but, at a decisive moment, a part of the Union army was suddenly attacked on its flank by a force of Confederates that had just arrived on the field. These Union troops, thinking they were about to be surrounded, wavered and retreated, and presently the whole army broke into a wild panic and fled in great disorder to Washington.

The Effect of Bull Run.—The effect of this battle on both sides was very great, but in different ways. The Southern people, wild with the joy of victory, thought the war was over, and consequently became careless. In the North, at first everybody was much discouraged; but in a little while they began to realize the magnitude of the undertaking before them, and saw that a greater effort must be made. Congress promptly voted to raise half a million men and five hundred millions of dollars. Volunteers poured into the camps everywhere, and General George B. McClellan, who was made Commander-in-Chief, spent several months in training the men and making soldiers of them.

Other Events of the Summer (1861).—During the first summer, there was a great deal of fighting in Mis-

souri. The people of that State were divided in their allegiance. Some sided with the Union and some with the South, so that for a while it was not certain which side would succeed in gaining control. After many small battles, however, the Confederates were finally forced out of the State.

Battle of Ball's Bluff (1861).—On the 21st of October, exactly three months after the battle of Bull Run, a Union force of two thousand men crossed the Potomac at Ball's Bluff, above Washington, and there came unexpectedly upon a body of Confederates. In the battle that followed, the Union troops were badly defeated and driven from the field. In trying to get back across the river, many of them were killed and many were drowned. While this disaster was very discouraging to the people at the North, it stimulated them to a more vigorous prosecution of the war.

The Plan of the War (1861).—By this time, the Union generals had formed a plan for carrying on the war. There were three important things to be done, if possible. One was to take Richmond, Virginia, which had been made the Confederate capital; another was to blockade the Southern ports and land an army on the Southern coast, and thus shut off the Confederates from the sea; the third was to secure possession of the Mississippi River, and, by so doing, cut the South in two.

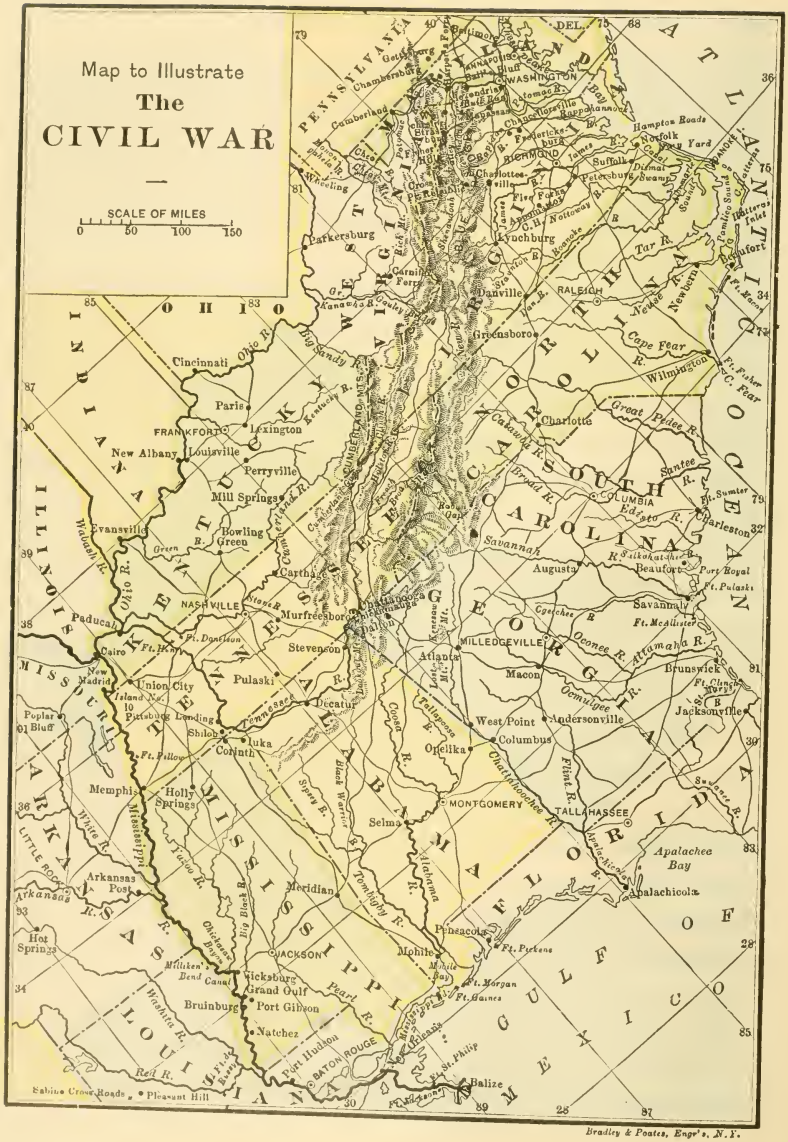
The War on the Coast (1861).—During the fall, a part of this plan of operations was successfully carried out. Two armies were safely planted on the Southern

coast; one of them at Hatteras Inlet, in North Carolina, and the other along the coast from Port Royal, in South Carolina, to the mouth of the Savannah River. All this was a great gain to the Union side; and, from that time till the end of the war, the stretch of coast thus taken was securely held.

The Confederates still held Charleston, Savannah, and Wilmington; but the ships of the navy watched their harbors closely and stopped all trade between the South and the rest of the world, except what could be carried on by blockade-runners.

Blockade-Running.—The people of the South had always been an agricultural people—that is, they lived wholly by cultivating the ground. They had few factories of any kind, and depended upon the North and upon Europe for their supplies of manufactured goods, for which they exchanged their cotton, rice, tobacco, and other products.

With their ports closed by a stringent blockade, so that vessels could neither enter nor leave them, the Southern States were now effectually cut off from communication with the rest of the world. As a result, all goods that could not be made in the South rose to fabulous prices, while in England, cotton could not be had at all. If, therefore, a ship-owner succeeded in taking a cargo of goods into a Southern port, and bringing out a cargo of cotton, his profit would be very great. In the hope of making such profits, a great many foreigners went into the business of blockade-running.


Map to Illustrate
The
CIVIL WAR
SCALE OF MILES
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Bradley & Poates, Engr's, N.Y.

They built small, fast-sailing steamers, and painted them a dull gray color, so that they could not be seen very far at sea. Loaded with goods, they made their way into Charleston, Savannah, Wilmington, or Mobile. These goods were exchanged for cotton, to carry to foreign countries. Many of these ships were captured by the vigilant war ships guarding the entrances to the Southern harbors; but a great many escaped, and the business of blockade-running continued until all the Confederate ports on the Atlantic coast were finally closed in the last year of the war.

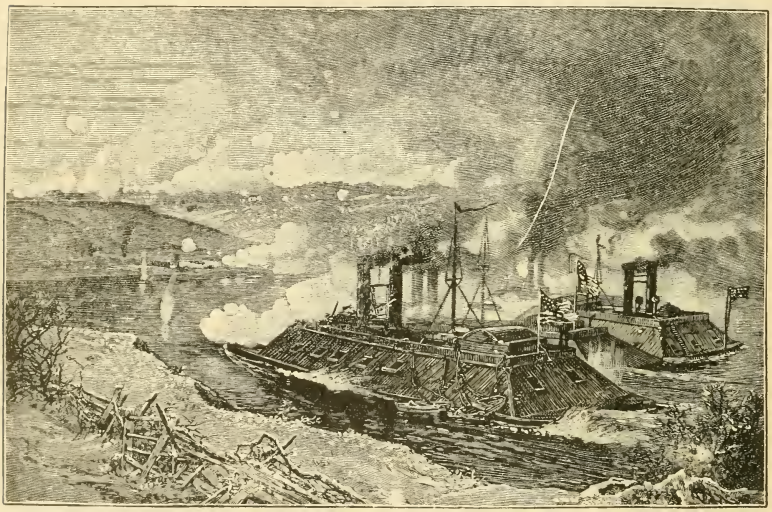
Progress of the War.—We can not, of course tell, in a little book like this, all about the movements of the various armies, nor can we describe all the battles, marches, and sieges that occurred during this great war. We shall tell only in a general way what was done.

Forts Henry and Donelson Captured (1862).—In February, General Ulysses S. Grant, with the help of some gun-boats under the command of Commodore Foote, captured two strong Southern forts, Fort Henry, on the Tennessee River, and Fort Donelson, on the Cumberland River, taking fifteen thousand prisoners. This was a severe blow to the Confederates, and seriously interfered with their plan of operations in that region. Without these forts, they could not maintain their armies in Kentucky, and so they retreated, abandoning all of that State and most of Tennessee to the Union troops.

These successes, so brilliantly won in the first campaign in the West, gave great encouragement to the

Union side, for they more than offset the disasters of Bull Run and Ball's Bluff.

Battle of Shiloh.—Grant was now sent to Pittsburg Landing, on the Tennessee River, where he waited to be joined by an army under Buell, before making an



GUN-BOATS ATTACKING FORT DONELSON.

advance upon Corinth, Mississippi. In April, the Confederates from Corinth, under Generals A. S. Johnston and Beauregard, made a stealthy march of twenty miles, and falling unexpectedly on the Union army, drove it from its camp. For twelve hours the battle raged. Grant's force was pushed back, slowly but steadily, toward the river. The Union men fought with the pluck and tenacity of old soldiers; but the Confederates pressed them

harder and harder, taking three thousand prisoners and great quantities of stores. Seeing the Union forces in confusion, Beauregard shouted to his men, "Forward, boys, and drive them into the Tennessee." But by nightfall the Confederates were checked, and fresh Union troops, under General Buell, were coming on the field. The next morning the battle was renewed, and the Confederates were driven back as slowly and as steadily as the Union men had been the day before. Finally, they withdrew from the field and retreated to Corinth.

Operations on the Mississippi (1862).—While one Union fleet was at work along the upper Mississippi, another fleet, under Admiral Farragut, entered the mouth of the river from the Gulf of Mexico, and fought its way past the forts to the city of New Or'le ans. The city surrendered on April 25th, and the forts soon after. Then Farragut, continuing up the river, captured Baton Rouge (bät'un roozh') and Natch'ez, ran past the heavy Confederate batteries at Vicksburg, and joined the fleet above.

Both ends of the great river were now open; but the Confederates still held two strongly fortified places on it, Vicksburg and Port Hudson, and so long as those two points were held by them, they could obtain abundant supplies from Texas and other States west of the Mississippi River. To open the river, and cut the Confederacy in two, those places must be taken.

The War on the Coast (1862).—Early in the spring, a Union force under General Burnside captured Roanoke (rō a nokē') Island and Newbern, North Carolina, and

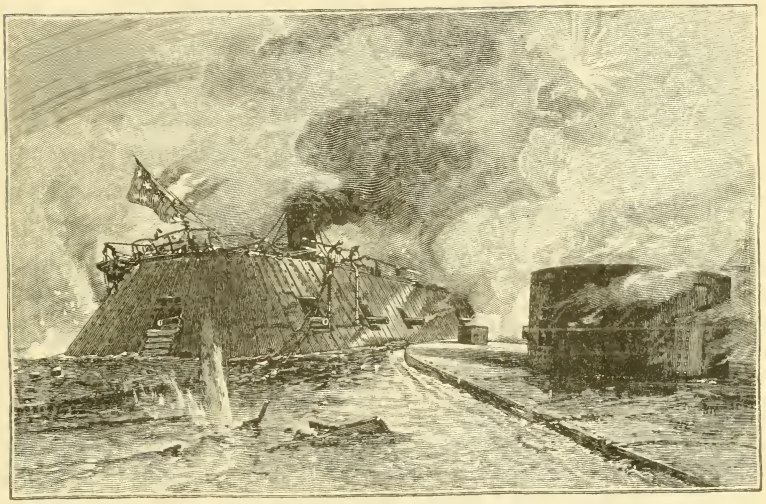
obtained control of nearly the whole coast of that State. Fort Pulaski (pū lăs′kĭ), at the mouth of the Savannah River, was taken, and many points in Georgia and Florida fell into the hands of the Union forces.

The Monitor and Merrimac (1862).—On the 9th of March, the first battle that ever took place between iron-clad ships was fought in Hampton Roads, Virginia. The Confederates had cut down the frigate Merrimac, and turned her into an iron-clad, which they named the Virginia. On the 8th of March, this great iron box, accompanied by two smaller vessels, steamed out from Norfolk into the Roads, sunk the sloop-of-war Cumberland, ran the Congress aground and captured her crew, and then steamed back to Norfolk. She meant to repeat the performance on the other vessels the following morning.

There was, of course, great excitement and consternation on board the other war ships. They could do nothing against this armor-plated monster. Their heaviest shot glanced off her iron sides like pebbles, and she might, without resistance, easily have sunk and destroyed the whole fleet that lay in the Roads. But during the night, a strange-looking craft arrived at Hampton Roads from the North.

Captain Er′ics son, of New York City, had long been at work upon a vessel called the Monitor. Though small, she was built on a good plan, and was heavily plated with iron. The Monitor carried two powerful guns in a round iron house on deck, and as this house, or turret, could be revolved by machinery, she was able to fire in

any direction. It was this new iron-clad that had come into Hampton Roads that night, just in time to save the other vessels of the fleet. When the victorious Merrimac steamed out into Hampton Roads early the next morning, Lieutenant Worden, unawed by the story

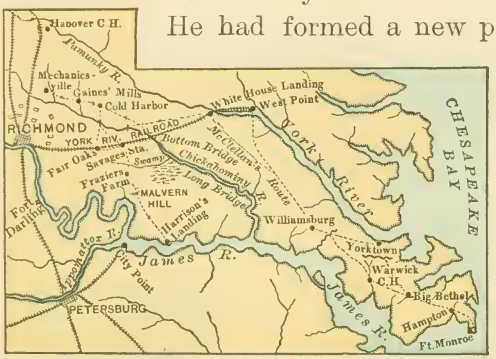


THE MERRIMAC AND THE MONITOR.

of her prowess, gallantly confronted her with the Monitor. The Confederates ridiculed the curious little craft that thus boldly faced the invincible Merrimac, comparing it to "a Yankee cheese-box on a raft." The two vessels at once came to close quarters. They fought for over four hours, often lying side by side, and pounding each other with great cannon-balls. Neither could inflict much injury on the other, and at last the Merrimac,

firing a parting shot, went back to Norfolk. This fight marked a new era in naval warfare.

McClellan's Plan.—General McClellan, who had been drilling and organizing his army during the winter, was now ready to march against Richmond. He had formed a new plan for taking that city. Instead of marching across the country from Washington to the Confederate capital, he decided to take his army in boats to Hampton Roads, and march up between the James River and the York River to Richmond. The country between these two rivers is a narrow strip called the Peninsula, and McClellan's movement is, therefore, called the Peninsular campaign.



MAP OF McCLELLAN'S CAMPAIGN IN THE PENINSULA.

Battle of Williamsburg (1862).—On the way, McClellan was stopped at Yorktown by a small Confederate army, and for a whole month occupied the very ground on which the army of Cornwallis had laid down its arms eighty years before. At last, the Confederates fell back to Williamsburg, and, receiving re-enforcements from Richmond, there offered battle on the 5th of May. For nine hours the battle was furiously fought, when the Confederates again fell back toward Richmond.

The Siege of Richmond (1862). — McClellan now posted his army near Richmond, and threw up heavy earth-works. According to the original plan of the campaign, another army, under McDowell, was to march from Fredericksburg to join him, and he hoped, as soon as this force came, to march into Richmond itself.

Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley (1862).— But the Confederates did not propose to allow the two Union armies to unite and capture the Confederate capital. They sent "Stonewall Jackson" down the Shenandoah (shĕn an dō'ah) Valley, in Virginia, with fifteen thousand men. This threatened the safety of the National capital. As soon as this bold movement was known, President Lincoln decided that a change was necessary in the plans of the Union generals.

It would not do now for McDowell to march toward Richmond, because if he did, the wily Jackson might push on and capture Washington. McDowell, therefore, instead of going to help McClellan, hurried back to protect Washington. But this was not all. Jackson and his army must be captured, destroyed, or driven out of the valley, and so three armies, making sixty thousand men in all, were now concentrating against him from different directions.

Jackson managed his campaign with great skill and daring; for, after fighting one army, under Fremont, at Cross Keys, and another, under General Shields, at Port Republic, he suddenly slipped away and marched leisurely back toward Richmond.

Battle of Fair Oaks (1862).—While all this was going on, the Confederates, under General Johnston, attacked McClellan at Fair Oaks, near Richmond. In this battle, which was fought on the last day of May and the first day of June, the Confederates were beaten, and Johnston was badly wounded, so that General Lee had to take command of the Southern army.

The Seven Days' Battles (1862).—Toward the end of June, Jackson, returning with his army from his brief campaign in the Shenandoah Valley, suddenly appeared behind McClellan's lines. Lee also sent many other troops to act with Jackson's in an attack on the flank and rear of the Union army, hoping to compel it to retreat to the York River. This move was unexpected. Something had to be done, and McClellan decided to abandon his position before Richmond, and march his army back to Harrison's Landing, on the James River.

Even before he began to do this, the Confederates fell upon him, and for seven days and nights the struggle continued. McClellan's army marched at night and fought during the day. Wherever the Confederates could strike the Union army, a battle followed. The Confederates again and again tried to cut off the retreat and to capture or crush the Union army, but McClellan managed the retreat with great ability, and at last the army reached the James.

In these battles, sometimes one side had the best of it and sometimes the other; but it was a great sorrow to

the Northern people that McClellan, after going near enough to Richmond to see the church steeples, had been forced to retreat to the river where the gun-boats protected him. Of course, the Confederates were rejoiced to be free from the danger that had so long menaced them.

Lee's Movement to the North (1862).—The situation was now soon to be reversed. For months, the South had feared that McClellan would march into Richmond, and the North had hoped to end the war in that way. Now Lee marched northward, and there was danger that he would advance on and capture Washington. General Pope was sent into Virginia to meet the Confederates; but in a battle on the old field of Bull Run, he was beaten and forced to fall back to the protection of the defenses at Washington. Lee, flushed with success, now resolved to carry the war into the North, and so pushed on, crossed the Potomac into Maryland, and threatened Baltimore.

Lee Invades Maryland (1862).—A Confederate army was at last on Northern soil, and dismay and consternation spread everywhere. President Lincoln called for three hundred thousand militia, and all troops within reach were ordered up. McClellan's army had already been brought around in boats from Harrison's Landing to Washington; and, with all the force that could be mustered, McClellan set out in pursuit of Lee. Everything hung on the result. If McClellan could not force Lee back, it was probable that the Confederates

would pour into Baltimore and Washington, and possibly get even to Philadelphia, before another army strong enough to check them could be got together.

Battle of Antietam (1862).—McClellan, at this critical juncture, was so fortunate as to find out, from a paper dropped by one of Lee's officers, just how the Confederates intended to divide their army and march in two columns. He hurried forward, therefore, in order to fall upon one column while the other was at a distance.

This thwarted Lee's plan of campaign, and forced him to fall back on Antietam (ăn tee'tam) Creek, near Sharpsburg, Maryland, so as to allow his two columns to come together again. There McClellan attacked him, and a great battle was fought on the 17th of September. Both armies fought with desperation, for both recognized that the battle was to decide whether the war was thenceforth to be fought on Northern as well as on Southern soil. The loss on both sides was enormous. Neither army, however, could drive the other from the field, and so neither could claim a victory. During the next day, they lay facing each other, then, seeing that his plan was hopelessly frustrated, Lee quietly fell back into Virginia.

The Battle of Fredericksburg (1862).—As soon as the Union army could be strengthened with fresh troops and supplied with clothing, it crossed into Virginia. General Burnside was now placed in command, and took position before Lee at Fredericksburg. The Confederates threw up works on a line of heights back of the town,

and waited for the Union army to cross the river and make an attack.

This was done on the 13th of December. Burnside led his army across the stream, through the town, and up the heights toward Lee's strong lines. There a terrible battle was fought, and more than 12,000 Union soldiers fell while trying to take the Confederate works by storm. Six attempts to carry the heights were made by as many brigades under French and Hancock, but they were literally cut to pieces. It was a useless sacrifice. Lee's position was too strong to be taken by assault, and Burnside withdrew across the river.

The War in the West (1862).—While all this was going on in the East, the armies in the West were also busy. The Confederates, under Bragg, marched from Chattanooga into Kentucky, while the Union troops, under Buell, fell back nearly to Louisville. General Grant, who was at Corinth, sent all the troops he could spare to the assistance of Buell, and they reached Louisville just in time to save it. Bragg had now to retreat, and after fighting one battle at Perryville, on the 8th of October, he went back to East Tennessee.

Battles of Iuka and Corinth (1862).—On the 19th of September, General Grant attacked the Confederates at Iuka, Mississippi, hoping to capture them. The battle was fierce, and the Confederates were driven back, but they were not captured. They joined another Confederate force soon afterward, and on the 4th of October, attacked Corinth with great vigor, but were defeated

GENERAL GRANT ON THE BATTLE-FIELD.

with immense loss, and were pursued for a long distance.

Battle of Murfreesboro (1862).—Bragg, having advanced into Middle Tennessee, established his army in winter quarters at Murfreesboro. On the last day of December, General Rosecrans, who was now in command of Buell's army, attacked the Confederates there, and a great battle was fought. Both sides were obstinate, and neither would give way. After fighting for a whole day, the two armies still faced each other, and three days later, January 2d, 1863, they fought again on the same ground. Then, Bragg, once more foiled and beaten, fell back to Chattanooga.

The Vicksburg Expedition (1862).—While Rosecrans was thus holding the line through Tennessee, General Grant had prepared a plan for the reduction of Vicksburg. He collected a great quantity of food for his army at Holly Springs, Mississippi, and prepared to march his force down the railroad from that point so as to get to the rear of Vicksburg. General Sherman, with another force and a fleet of gun-boats under Admiral Porter, was to descend the Mississippi River and advance upon the town from the north.

But the Confederate general, Van Dorn, one day dashed into Holly Springs with a body of cavalry and burned the stores of food that Grant had collected there. Grant's army, of course, could not undertake a long and difficult campaign without provisions, and so Sherman was left unsupported. Believing that Grant was behind

the town, Sherman made his attack, and was repulsed with great loss.

Emancipation of the Slaves (1863).—One of the most important events of the war occurred at the beginning of this year. This was the freeing of the slaves. You will remember that, when Mr. Lincoln was inaugurated as President, he disavowed any intention of interfering with slavery in the South. But as the war went on, it was seen that the slaves were a source of great strength to the Confederate cause, for they not only remained on the plantations to raise crops for the supply of the Southern armies, but they also labored in building great fortifications. Mr. Lincoln therefore, in order to still further weaken the South, resolved to free the slaves. So, on the 1st of January, 1863, he issued a proclamation, declaring that all slaves held by the Confederates, should be thenceforth and for ever free. Under this proclamation, the Union officers, wherever they went in the South, set the negroes free. Numerous negro regiments were soon organized, and afterward fought gallantly on many a bloody battle-field. The freeing of the slaves was a severe blow to the Confederates, and a corresponding benefit to the Union side.

Battle of Chancellorsville (1863).—We must now, once again, turn to the East, and see what was being done in that section. After the battle of Fredericksburg, General Hooker was placed in command of the Union army. The two armies in Virginia lay still until spring, and spent the winter in getting ready for a grand campaign.

The Union army was strengthened in every way, while Lee, on the other hand, had to send about one third of his men away, under Longstreet, to protect the Peninsula.

When the spring of 1863 opened, Lee had only 60,000 men, while Hooker had nearly twice as many. But Lee's position at Fredericksburg was very strong, and Hooker, remembering the costly experience of General Burnside the previous year, resolved not to repeat the mistake of that commander. Instead of crossing the river at Fredericksburg and storming Lee's strong works on the heights from the front, he moved most of his army up the stream, then crossed, and marched out to Chancellorsville.

This forced Lee to abandon his position. Leaving a small force at Fredericksburg to hold the works, he marched to Chancellorsville to confront Hooker. There, in spite of the great odds against him, he divided his army, and sent Jackson with part of it to march around Hooker's right flank. Jackson fell upon the Union flank just before dark on the 2d of May. The surprise was complete, and Hooker's right wing was routed. The next day the fighting was terrible, and Hooker was slowly forced back.

In the meantime, General Sedgwick, with a Union force, had crossed the river and taken Fredericksburg. He was now coming up to attack Lee in the rear, and so the Southern army was at once hurled against him, in order to destroy him before he could make a junction with Hooker. By the time Lee had forced him back to

the river, Hooker's beaten army had retreated to its old camping ground, opposite Fredericksburg, and the battle was over.

Hooker's failure, with the immense army under his command, was a great disappointment to the people of the North, while the Southern people could hardly enjoy their victory because of the death of their favorite leader, General "Stonewall" Jackson. He had been fatally wounded in the battle by a party of his own men, who mistook him in the dark for a Union officer.

Battle of Gettysburg (1863).—Lee now decided to invade the North again. With all the troops he could gather, he marched into Maryland and Pennsylvania. Nobody knew in what direction he intended to strike. He might attack Baltimore and Washington, or he might make a dash at Philadelphia and New York. There was great uneasiness throughout the North, and General George G. Meade, with all the troops within reach, was sent to check the march of the Confederates.

The two armies met at Gettysburg, Pennsylvania, on the 1st of July, and fought the greatest battle of the war. The fight lasted three days, both sides contesting every inch of the ground with dogged tenacity. The men often fought hand to hand, charging up to the very mouths of cannon, which blew them away almost by companies. Twenty-three thousand of the Union soldiers fell, and the Confederates lost nearly as many. At last the terrible battle ended. Lee marched back into Virginia and posted his army on the Rapidan, Meade slowly fol-

lowing. This ended the fighting in the East for that year.

Siege and Capture of Vicksburg (1863).—While these things were happening in the East, the war was going on as briskly in the West. Grant continued his movements against Vicksburg, and established a large force on the opposite (west) bank of the Mississippi. Sending small detachments north of the town, he tried for several weeks to gain a foothold there, but failed. Then he marched down the river to a point opposite Bruinsburg, about thirty-five miles below the town. The fleet, under Admiral Porter, boldly steamed down the river, running the gauntlet of eight miles of Confederate batteries, and, in spite of the storm of shot and shell, got through and carried the troops safely across to the east bank of the river. General Grant, with his army, was now south of Vicksburg, its weakest side.

Grant now swung his army around in the rear of the town, and, after some desperate fighting, shut up the Confederates, under General Pemberton, in their own works. General Johnston, who was at Jackson, Mississippi, with a large force, endeavored to help Pemberton, but was driven back. Two assaults on the works were repulsed.

A regular siege was now begun, and was pressed with sleepless energy. Every avenue of escape from the city was closely guarded. A line of fortifications, fifteen miles in length, was thrown up around the city, from behind which more than two hundred pieces of artillery poured an incessant fire of shot and shell upon the be-

leaguered city and its inhabitants. The navy on the river side threw great bombs into the streets of Vicksburg at night, so that, between the fire of the fleet on one side and that of the army on the other, the people were in constant fear and terror.

To escape the dreadful storm of fire that swept over the place, the people abandoned their houses, and dug caves in the sides of the hills, in which they continued to live during the siege. Soon the store of food ran low, when mules, and horses, and other animals were killed, to eke out the scanty rations of the besieged. Famine and pestilence stalked the streets, while all around was a circle of fire. The end finally came. After seven weeks of heroic defense, Vicksburg surrendered on the 4th of July, and 27,000 men were taken prisoners.

Siege and Capture of Port Hudson (1863).—Vicksburg, as we have learned, was not the only place on the Mississippi to be taken before the control of the great river was wrested from the Confederates. Port Hudson, two hundred miles below, was also strongly fortified, and the reduction of that stronghold was also part of the plan of campaign for this year.

About the time that Grant began his movement against Vicksburg, a Union army, under General Banks, crossed from New Orleans into western Louisiana, and, routing the Confederates under Taylor, pursued them far into the country. Turning about, a swift march along the Red River brought Banks to the Mississippi. Here

the fleet from Vicksburg met him and carried his army across to a point a few miles north of Port Hudson.

In the meantime a large force, under General Augur, had been gathered at Baton Rouge, south of Port Hudson. Banks advancing on the doomed town from the north and Augur from the south, soon invested it. Two desperate attempts were made to carry the Confederate works by storm, but both were repulsed with frightful loss. The place sustained, for more than forty days, all the horrors of a siege, when, on the 7th of July—three days after the surrender of Vicksburg—Port Hudson also succumbed. The Mississippi was now free, and the Confederacy cut in two.

The War in the Center (1863).—The rest of the fighting during this year took place around Chattanooga, Tennessee. Rosecrans marched against that place, and Bragg, fearing that he might be cut off and shut up in the town, retreated on the 8th of September. Lee, seeing the danger, hurried Longstreet with a large force from Virginia to the assistance of Bragg.

With this help, Bragg suddenly turned on Rosecrans at Chickamauga Creek, September 19th. The battle lasted two days, and the Union forces were badly worsted. General Thomas, who had command of the left wing of the Union army, held his ground, however, and so prevented the victory of the Confederates from being complete.

Siege of Chattanooga (1863).—Two nights later, Thomas fell back to Chattanooga, and Bragg followed.

For two months the Union army was closely shut up in the town, until it was nearly starved. In November, relief came. General Hooker was sent from Virginia with two corps, and Sherman brought his army from Vicksburg, Mississippi, while General Grant took command. The

BATTLE OF MISSIONARY RIDGE.

fighting began on the 23d of November, and lasted until the 25th. The Union troops took the Confederate works on Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge in two of the most brilliant battles of the war. Bragg was driven from his position with great loss, and had to fall back into Georgia, where the command of his army was given to General Johnston.

Grant now ordered Sherman to march at once into East Tennessee, to the relief of Burnside, who was besieged in Knoxville by a Confederate army under Longstreet. After making a desperate effort to take the town, Longstreet withdrew as Sherman's forces approached.

The Red River Expedition (1864).—In the spring of 1864, an army under General Banks, with a fleet of gunboats under Admiral Porter, went from New Orleans up the Red River, where they were joined by a part of Grant's army from Vicksburg. The purpose of this expedition was to conquer upper Louisiana and Texas. The Union army was badly beaten by General Richard Taylor in one battle, but held its ground in another the next day. The expedition proved a failure, however, and, as soon as they could, the forces went back to New Orleans.

The Plan of Campaign for 1864.—General Grant, whose brilliant series of victories had stamped him as the ablest general in the Union army, was now appointed Commander-in-Chief of all the Union forces. He had most of the troops brought together into two great armies, one in Virginia, under Meade, and the other near Chattanooga, Tennessee, under Sherman. Grant's plan was to have both armies operate against the enemy at the same time. The Eastern army was to make Richmond its objective point, while the Western one was to march into Georgia, rout the Confederate army in that section, break up the railroad system of the South,

destroy its foundries, arsenals, and store-houses, and, if possible, cut the Confederacy in two again. The South was now nearly exhausted with the contest, and Grant hoped by this plan to end the war that year. He ordered the advance to begin early in May.

GRANT WRITING THE ORDER FOR SHERMAN'S ADVANCE.

The Campaign in Virginia (1864).—On the 4th of May, the Eastern army crossed the Rapidan River, in Virginia, and marched into a desolate and thickly-wooded region called the Wilderness. It was a perfect jungle. There Lee was met the following morning, and for two days the two armies were locked in deadly combat,

surging and swaying through the tangled woods, as now one and then another of the combatants advanced or receded. The fighting was terrible. The woods resounded with the cries of the wounded and the dying. Finding that Lee could not be dislodged, Grant marched to the left, and Lee, marching at the same time, met him again at Spottsylvania Court House. There the two armies fought for four days, when Grant, swinging his army to the left again, once more outflanked Lee. In this way, the two marched south, until they found themselves facing each other at Cold Harbor.

GRANT'S CAMPAIGN AROUND RICHMOND.

Battle of Cold Harbor (1864).—At this place, Grant made a fierce assault upon Lee's works, just at daybreak on the 3d of June. The battle lasted only twenty minutes, but the slaughter was frightful. The Union troops, charging upon impregnable earthworks, lost more than seven thousand men, while the Confederates, protected by the works, lost only a thousand. Moving to the left again, Grant rested at last before Petersburg and Richmond.

Grant's Plan.—His plan now was to hold his works there and gradually push his left wing farther and farther round the town of Petersburg, till Lee should be forced to retreat. Both sides knew that if Grant could get Petersburg, Richmond would be cut off, and the Confederates forced to evacuate it. For the next eight months the siege went on, with almost constant fighting, while little by little Grant's left was pushed forward so as to encircle the Confederate armies.

Early's Campaign (1864).—In July, Lee sent Early to threaten Washington, hoping in that way to divert Grant's attention and compel him to raise the siege of Petersburg. Early went into Maryland, and, for a time, Washington was really in danger. Very few Union troops were there, but forces were hurried forward from various points, and Early had to give up his attempt. Sheridan pursued him into Virginia, and a sharp campaign in the Shenandoah Valley followed. Three great battles were fought—Winchester, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek—in which Sheridan lost about seventeen thousand men, but when the campaign was over, he held complete control of the valley. Grant, meanwhile, firmly holding his position in front of Richmond and Petersburg, was steadily tightening his lines around Lee and his army.

The Alabama and the Kearsarge (1864).—While these brilliant victories were being achieved in the field, the commerce of the United States was being rapidly destroyed on the sea by armed cruisers carrying the Con-

federate flag. These vessels were built in England, and sent out to sea unarmed. Other ships took out arms and ammunition for them, and when these were placed on board, Confederate officers took command.

The chief of these ships was the Alabama, commanded by Captain Raphael Semmes. She scoured the seas for many months, capturing American merchant vessels, and making it dangerous for unarmed ships to sail under the United States flag. At last, on the 19th of June, 1864, the Kearsarge, a United States man-of-war, under Captain Winslow, met the Alabama near Cherbourg, France, and, after a battle of two hours, the Confederate vessel was sunk. Captain Semmes was taken on board an English yacht, which witnessed the fight, and made his escape.

The Campaign in the West (1864).—When Grant crossed the Rapidan on his campaign in Virginia, Sherman began his march into Georgia. Johnston slowly fell back before him, fighting stubbornly wherever he could make a stand. There were four great battles fought before Johnston at last took up his position in front of Atlanta. There he meant to stay and force Sherman to attack him behind his earth-works, but Jefferson Davis, the Confederate president, just then removed him from command, and placed Hood in his place.

Hood attacked Sherman again and again, but without success. Sherman, instead of resorting to the slow process of a siege, marched past the town and cut its line of supplies. Hood was now forced to abandon

Atlanta at once, to save his army from capture, leaving Sherman and his army in possession of the great railroad center of the South.

On leaving Atlanta, Hood at once marched north and attacked Nashville. For two weeks he kept Thomas closely besieged in that town. At the end of that time, Thomas forced his way out, and a terrible battle, lasting two days, followed. Hood's army fought desperately, but was at last beaten and broken to pieces.

Sherman's March to the Sea (1864).—As soon as Hood moved toward Nashville, Sherman set out to march through the heart of the South, from Atlanta to Savannah. Without opposition, he marched through the middle of the Confederacy, his army spread out over a wide expanse of country, destroying railroads, and capturing the few stores that were left. Finally, on the day after Hood's defeat at Nashville, Sherman entered Savannah, and finished his famous "march to the sea".

The Situation (1865).—It was now plain that the South could not hold out much longer. The Confederacy, which had been cut in two when the Mississippi River was opened, was again divided by Sherman's triumphant march across Georgia. Admiral Farragut had taken the forts in Mobile Bay, and in January, 1865, a land and a sea force, after a desperate fight, took Fort Fisher, and so closed the harbor of Wilmington, North Carolina.

The End of the War.—The Union armies now pressed the Confederates at every point. Cavalry forces swept

UNION AND CONFEDERATE GENERALS OF THE CIVIL WAR.

through the country in all directions. Sherman, with his army, set out from Savannah, passed through Columbia, South Carolina, and, after some battles with the Confederates under Johnston, entered Raleigh, North Carolina.

As soon as Sherman took Columbia, the Confederates withdrew from Charleston. The South was now completely cut off from all access to the sea.

On the 1st of April, General Sheridan pushed a force around Lee's right flank, and gained the decisive battle of Five Forks. The next day an advance was ordered all along the Union lines, which broke Lee's front, and forced him to retreat from Petersburg to Richmond. Lee now struggled hard to free himself from the toils in which Grant had enveloped him, and to get away with the last remnant of his army. Pressed on every side, he was compelled to abandon Richmond, and moved westward in the hope of joining Johnston; but, after marching and fighting day and night for seven days, he found his men actually starving.

On the 9th of April, Lee surrendered to Grant at Appomattox Court House, Virginia. As soon as it was known that Lee had surrendered, the Southern forces, one after another, laid down their arms, and the Civil War was over.

New States.—Two new States were added to the Union during the Civil War—West Virginia, in 1863, and Nevada, in 1864.

The Assassination of President Lincoln.—As soon as

the news of Lee's surrender reached President Lincoln, he began to lay plans for settling the quarrel, and making the whole country once more peaceful and friendly. He had asserted, all through the war, that the only thing he cared for was to bring the Southern States back and preserve the Union. In his second inaugural address, about a month before, he had uttered these noble words, "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow and his orphans, to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and a lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

And now, that the conflict was ended, he meant, in the same generous spirit, to do all that he could to make the people forget the past, and be again friends. Nobody else could have done so much to bring this about as he, and, had he lived, it would have been much easier than it was to settle matters.

But a terrible tragedy was enacted on the 14th of April, just five days after Lee's surrender. Mr. Lincoln was sitting in a box in a theater, looking at the play, when an actor, named John Wilkes Booth, crept up behind, and shot him through the head. The news of this shocking deed sent a thrill of horror through the whole country, but there was no rioting of any kind. Mr. Lincoln's second term began on the 4th of March--

a little more than a month before his death—so that the Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, had nearly four years to serve as President.

QUESTIONS.

1. When did Lincoln enter on his duties as President? What right had the Southern States always claimed? What different opinions in regard to secession were expressed at the North? What declarations did Lincoln make in his inaugural address? What determination had been arrived at by the seceded States?
2. Who commanded Fort Sumter when it was attacked by the Confederates? Who was in command of the forces attacking Fort Sumter? Tell about the bombardment of Fort Sumter. What was its effect upon the whole country? Give the names of the States added to the Confederacy. At what place did the volunteers of the North collect?—the volunteers of the South?
3. What was the first movement of the Union army? Where was the Southern army located? Tell about McClellan's campaign in Western Virginia. When was the State of West Virginia admitted to the Union? Describe the battle of Bull Run. What was its effect upon the South? What was its effect upon the North? Who was appointed commander-in-chief of the Union forces? What was the condition of affairs in Missouri? When did the battle of Ball's Bluff take place? What was its effect upon the North?
4. What plan of action had been formed by the Union generals? Why was the possession of the Mississippi River by the Union side considered important? What events took place on the coast in 1861? Name the principal sea-ports of the South. What was the object of blockading the Southern ports? Tell about blockade-running. Why was blockade-running resorted to?
5. Give an account of the capture of Forts Henry and Donelson;—the abandonment of Kentucky by the Confederates;—the battle of Shiloh. Who commanded the Union forces at Shiloh? Who the Confederate? Give an account of Farragut's expedition against New Orleans;—the capture of Baton Rouge and Natchez. Why were Vicksburg and Port Hudson of great importance to the Confederates?
6. What places on the coast were captured by General Burnside? Tell about the Merrimac;—the Monitor. What did the Merrimac do on the 8th of March, 1862? Describe the fight between the iron-clads. What is said of the importance of this fight?

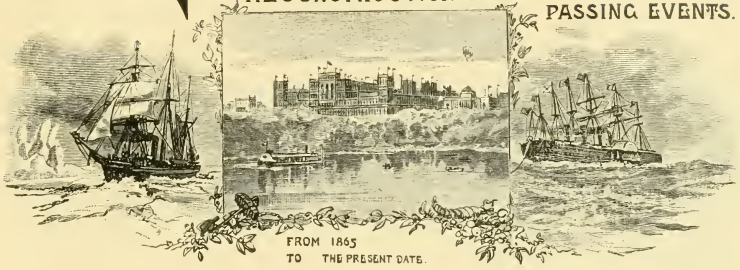
7. What was McClellan's plan of campaign against Richmond? Tell about the battle of Williamsburg;—the siege of Richmond;—Jackson's campaign in the Shenandoah Valley. Why was Jackson sent there? Tell about the battle of Fair Oaks;—the Seven Days' Battles. What was the result of the Peninsular campaign?
8. When did Lee march northward? What battle was fought with General Pope? What Northern State did the Confederates enter? Who set out to oppose them? Tell about the battle of Antietam. What did the battle of Antietam decide? Tell about the battle of Fredericksburg;—Bragg's expedition into Kentucky;—the battles of Iuka and Corinth;—the battle of Murfreesboro;—the Vicksburg expedition. Why was this expedition unsuccessful?
9. What proclamation did President Lincoln issue on January 1st, 1863? What were its effects upon the war? What was President Lincoln's purpose in issuing that proclamation? Tell about the battle of Chancellorsville;—the death of "Stonewall" Jackson;—the advance of Lee into Maryland and Pennsylvania;—the battle of Gettysburg;—the siege and capture of Vicksburg;—the siege and capture of Port Hudson. What great object was accomplished by the capture of these two places? Tell about the battle of Chattanooga;—the battle of Chickamauga;—the siege of Chattanooga;—the battles of Lookout Mountain and Missionary Ridge.
10. When did the Red River Expedition take place? What was its object? What was its result? Who was appointed commander-in-chief of the Union armies? What were his plans for 1864? What was the condition of the Confederacy?
11. When did the Eastern army cross the Rapidan River? Tell about the battle of the Wilderness;—the battle of Spottsylvania Court House;—the battle of Cold Harbor. How did Grant intend to capture Richmond? How did Lee endeavor to raise the siege of Petersburg? What were the chief events of Early's campaign? What three great battles were fought and won by Sheridan in that campaign? Give an account of the cruise of the Alabama;—of her fight with the Kearsarge.
12. Describe the advance of Sherman upon Atlanta. Who commanded the Confederate army opposed to Sherman? Who succeeded him;—and why? Tell about the expedition of Hood against Nashville;—Sherman's march to the sea. What was the situation of affairs in February, 1865? Tell about Sherman's march from Savannah, Georgia, to Raleigh, North Carolina;—the battle of Five Forks;—the retreat and surrender of Lee. At what place did Lee surrender?
13. What two new States were added to the Union during the war? What were Lincoln's intentions after the war was over? What was his great object during the war? When and by whom was he assassinated? Who became President? How long had he to serve?

FOR READING OR RECITATION.

Battle Hymn of the Republic.—Julia Ward Howe.
Our Privilege—Bret Harte.
Our Country's Call.—Bryant.
The Union—Right or Wrong.—Geo. P. Morris.
At Port Royal.—Whittier.
John Brown.—E. C. Stedman.
Three Hundred Thousand More.
The Drummer Boy.—J. T. Trowbridge.
The Color Bearer.—H. H. Brownell.
The Flower of Liberty.—Holmes.
The Little Drummer.—R. H. Stoddart.
The Cumberland.—Longfellow.
On Board the Cumberland.—Geo. H. Boker.
Barbara Frietchie.—Whittier.
John Burns of Gettysburg.—Bret Harte.
Sheridan's Ride.—T. B. Read.
The Cavalry Charge.—E. C. Stedman.
Abraham Lincoln.—Bryant.
The Fight Above the Clouds.—W. R. Wallace.
The Bay Fight.—H. H. Brownell.
The Reveille.—Bret Harte.
The Blue and the Gray.—F. M. Finch.

PART VI.

RECONSTRUCTION AND PASSING EVENTS.



JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1865-1869.)

RECONSTRUCTION.—Although the war was over, there were still many questions that grew out of it to be settled. In the first place, since there might be some question as to the right of the President to abolish slavery, an amendment to the Constitution was passed, which prohibited slavery everywhere in the country.

But the most perplexing question of all was how to treat the Southern States. President Johnson maintained that, as they had no right to secede, they were never out of the Union at all. He wanted them to resume their old places again, and send their representatives to Congress as soon as they should comply with certain terms which he laid down.

The majority of Congress, on the contrary, thought that the Southern States by seceding had forfeited their rights as States, that they were now to be regarded as

conquered provinces, and that it remained with Congress to say what they must do to get back into the Union. This difference of opinion led to a bitter controversy between the President and Congress.

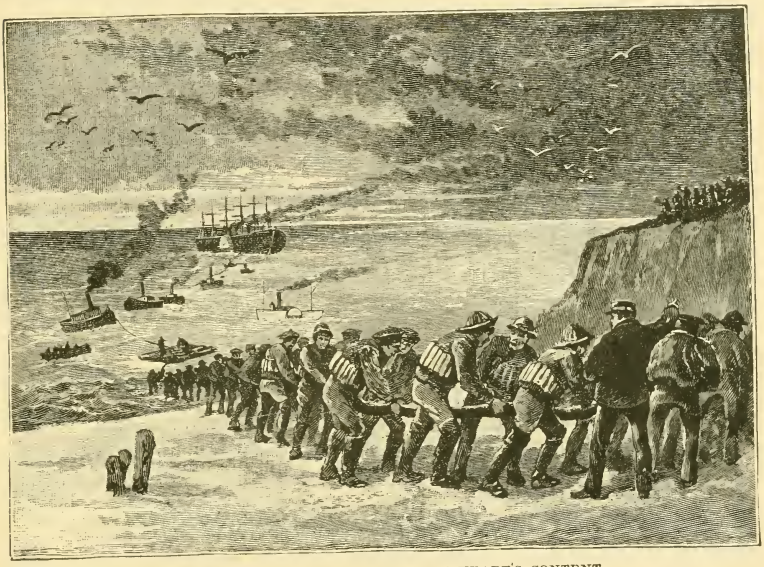
Impeachment of the President.—In 1868, the President was tried before the Senate for removing the Secretary of War from office without the consent of the Senate. It was claimed that in doing this he violated one of the laws passed by Congress, and was therefore guilty of a high crime and misdemeanor. There was great excitement throughout the country over the trial. When the Senate voted, the President was acquitted.

After that, the work of bringing the Southern States back into the Union went on steadily. One by one they conformed to the conditions which the laws required, and were allowed to come back into the Union. It was several years, however, before they were all admitted, and in the election of the next President, three of them were not allowed to vote, because they had not been fully restored to their places in the Union.

Constitutional Amendments.—The Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution simply abolished slavery. It did not determine what rights the negroes should have, and so another amendment—the Fourteenth—was adopted by Congress. This gave the negroes all the rights and privileges of white men, except the right of voting. Being ratified by the necessary number of States, this amendment became, in 1868, part of the Constitution.

But as this did not give the negroes the right to vote,

a Fifteenth Amendment was passed, which bestowed upon them all the rights of citizens of the United States, and of the States in which they lived. It became a part of the Constitution in 1870, after Johnson's term had



LANDING THE ATLANTIC CABLE AT HEART'S CONTENT.

expired. These three changes in the Constitution were all that the war had made necessary.

Purchase of Alaska.—In 1867, the United States bought Russian America, which we now call Alaska. The country is cold and barren; but it is rich in furs, and there are valuable fisheries on its coasts.

New State.—Nebraska was added to the Union during 1867, making the total number of States thirty-seven.

The Ocean Telegraph (1866).—For many years, Mr. Cyrus W. Field, of New York, had been trying to lay a telegraph under the Atlantic Ocean. One was laid in 1858, but it soon broke. Most people believed that a cable could not be successfully laid and worked across so wide an expanse of ocean. But Mr. Field (who was a man of great patience and perseverance) had faith in the undertaking. He continued his efforts, and at last, in 1866, after many failures and discouragements, succeeded in his great enterprise. The cable was laid by the Great Eastern, the largest steam-ship ever built in the world. Since that time, many other cables have been stretched under the ocean, and now we would not know how to get along without them.

Politics.—As the time for the next election approached, the Republicans nominated General U. S. Grant for President, while the Democrats nominated Horatio Seymour, of New York. The contest mainly turned upon the right of Congress to establish laws for the admission of the Southern States to the Union. The Republican candidate was elected.

GRANT'S ADMINISTRATION.

(TWO TERMS—1869-1877.)

The Pacific Railroad (1869).—General Grant took his seat as President, in March, 1869. During the first year of his term, the railroad across the continent, which had been a great while in process of construction, was fin-

ished. For six years, two companies had been building this road, one working from the east and the other from the west. In May, 1869, they met at Ogden, Utah, and the last spike was driven between two locomotives, one headed toward the east and the other toward the west. The great Pacific Railroad was at last finished, and lines of rails, stretching without a break all the way across the continent, realized Columbus' dream of a short route to India.

The Treaty of Washington (1871).—There were several matters in dispute between England and the United States. The most serious of them grew out of the operations of the Confederate cruiser Alabama, which had done so much damage to American shipping during the war. The United States claimed that England, as a friendly nation, ought not to have permitted the Alabama to sail out of a British port, and therefore was responsible for all the harm the Alabama had done.

The British government, however, would not yield to this view, and for a while it seemed that a war was imminent between the two countries. But, in 1871, it was agreed to submit the whole matter to fair men, and to let them decide the questions in dispute. This agreement was called the Treaty of Washington. All differences between the two countries were amicably adjusted. This was much more sensible than fighting, and made the two countries better friends than ever.

The Great Fires (1871).—In October, 1871, a great fire broke out in Chicago, and in a night swept away

the best part of that city. The property destroyed was worth two hundred million dollars, and a hundred thousand people were left homeless. This terrible disaster elicited an outburst of generosity among the American people, such as had never before been witnessed in any country. Within twelve hours after the story of the fire had been flashed over the wires, trains, laden with food and clothing, were running from all points toward the desolated city. In every hamlet, town, and city of the United States, the people were at work devising means for the relief of their stricken brethren in Chicago.

About the same time a disastrous fire swept through the great lumber region of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, burning villages and farm-houses, and destroying thousands of people.

The next year, in November, a fire occurred in Boston, which consumed the finest part of that city. But the country was rich and thriving, and so Chicago and Boston were soon built up again, even better than before.

Politics.—About this time many Republicans, who had zealously supported General Grant at the preceding election, became dissatisfied with his administration. They organized as the "Liberal Republican Party", and nominated Horace Greeley for President. The Democratic convention endorsed this nomination, while the Republicans re-nominated General Grant. When the election took place, many of the Democrats, disliking Mr. Greeley because of his erratic ideas, refrained from voting, and General Grant was accordingly re-elected.

The Panic of 1873.—The prosperity of the country was now to receive a severe shock. There had been a great deal of wild speculation throughout the country, and, in the fall of 1873, a crash came similar to that of 1837. Banks failed, railroad-building stopped, factories shut their doors, money became scarce, business almost came to a stand, and thousands of people were thrown out of employment. Very hard times followed, and for six years the people felt the effects of that terrible panic.

The Centennial Exhibition (1876).—In spite of the hard times, however, a great exhibition, in celebration of the hundredth anniversary of our history as a nation, was held in Fairmount Park, Philadelphia, in 1876. Vast buildings were erected for the purpose, and the people of all nations sent goods to be displayed there. Visitors came from all parts of the world, and everybody in the country who could do so went to see the wonderful sights. The exhibition lasted six months, and during that time it was visited by nearly ten millions of people.

Indian Wars.—General Harney had (1865) secured favorable treaties with the Indians in the West. The following year, an expedition under General H. B. Carrington was sent to open a wagon road to Montana, without the consent of the Indians. Fifty skirmishes ensued, in one of which Fetterman's party of eighty-one officers and men was led into an ambush and massacred, on Peno Creek, Dakota. This war lasted nearly twelve years. General Canby, meanwhile, was killed by the Modocs, in Oregon (1873), during a friendly talk

with them, in the interests of peace, and under a flag of truce. For this deed of treachery, the chiefs were tried and hanged. Three years later, a more terrible massacre took place on Little Big Horn River, Dakota, in which General Custer and his command were surrounded by Sitting Bull's band of Sioux, and not a man escaped.

In 1877, the Nez Perces were driven from their lands, and captured near Canada, with their Chief, Joseph. All were subsequently released. Sitting Bull agreed to live at peace with the whites, if the whites would let him. General Sherman officially summed up his report by saying, "the whites have been uniformly unjust."

The Disputed Election (1876).—The next election for President was a very close one. The Republicans had nominated Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, for President, and the Democrats, Samuel J. Tilden, of New York. After the election, a dispute arose as to which candidate was entitled to the electoral votes of Louisiana, South Carolina, and Florida. For several months the question was a burning one in Congress and among the people; but Congress finally agreed to refer the matter to a commission of fifteen men—five Senators, five Representatives, and five Justices of the Supreme Court. This commission decided that the votes of the disputed States should be counted for Mr. Hayes. He was therefore declared elected by a majority of one electoral vote.

New State.—Colorado was admitted to the Union as a State, in 1876.

HAYES' ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1877-1881.)

Domestic Affairs (1877).—During Hayes' term, much of the old feeling of bitterness between the North and the South passed away. The people, for a time, forgot all about politics, and became interested in other matters. New questions, too, were coming up. In 1879, the government began to pay gold for the paper money which had been in use ever since the war. This made the paper money everywhere worth as much as gold, and helped business a great deal.

The Railroad Riots (1877).—In the summer of 1877, the workmen on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad refused to work without higher wages, and when the railroad company decided not to accede to their demands, the workmen prevented the running of trains. This "strike", as it was called, soon developed into a riot, and spread over a large part of the country. Militia and regular troops were called out to subdue the rioters, and a good deal of bloodshed followed. In Pittsburg, one hundred men were killed, many buildings and cars were burned, and much valuable property was destroyed. In Chicago, and other places, there was sharp fighting, and even after the riots were quelled, the government considered it necessary to retain troops in the mining districts of Pennsylvania to prevent a new outbreak.

The Yellow Fever Epidemic.—In 1878, and again in 1879, yellow fever raged with great violence in many

Southern cities and villages. Thousands of people died of the disease; and as business was suspended in the cities where it prevailed, there was much suffering among the people.

Money, food, clothing, and medicines were badly needed for the smitten ones, and the people of the North poured out their wealth like water to help their plague-stricken brethren of the South. Rich men gave large sums, men of small means gave what they could, and even the poor dropped their coins into the boxes that were set up in public places to receive them. Physicians and nurses from all parts of the country volunteered their services and went South, many to lose their lives by the dreadful scourge.

There was more danger in going into the fever cities than there is in the fiercest battle, and those who thus endangered their lives to help the sick and suffering displayed a heroism worthy of the highest honor. We have said that the people of the North and South grew more friendly during Hayes' administration. Nothing did more to make them so than what happened in the yellow fever time.

Politics.—At the election of 1880, which was characterized by great excitement and bitterness, General James A. Garfield, the Republican candidate, was chosen as the next President. The Democratic candidate was General W. S. Hancock.

GARFIELD AND ARTHUR'S ADMINISTRATION

(ONE TERM—1881-1885.)

Assassination of President Garfield (1881).—General Garfield took his seat on the 4th of March, 1881, and his administration promised to inaugurate another era of good feeling. The people of both parties liked the new President, and believed that he meant to do what was best for the country. But, on the 2d of July, 1881, a man named Charles J. Guiteau, who had endeavored to obtain an office from the President and failed, went up behind him while he was standing in a railroad station at Washington, and shot him in the back.

JAMES A. GARFIELD.

For nearly three months, President Garfield lay wounded, while the whole country waited and watched eagerly for the news that was sent out from the sick-room twice a day. At last, on the 19th of September, the President died, and throughout the United States the people were in mourning. Every man, woman, and child felt that a friend was gone.

Vice-President Arthur becomes President.--On the death of Garfield, the Vice-President, General Chester A. Arthur, became President for the rest of the term.

The death of President Garfield produced a profound impression among the people of the country, and for a time put a stop to all political bickerings and strife. Mr. Garfield was a statesman with broad and liberal views. He knew what the country needed to make it prosperous and happy. His inaugural address outlined a policy which, had he lived to carry it out, would have made his one of the most brilliant and successful administrations in the history of the country. Called suddenly to the Presidency, therefore, as Mr. Arthur was, he came into power without any well defined policy of his own, but he nevertheless conducted the affairs of the government with so much wisdom and discretion as to win the respect and confidence of even his political opponents.

Civil Service Reform (1883).—The question uppermost in the public mind, about this time, was that of Civil Service Reform. By this is meant the regulation of appointments to positions in the service of the government.

In the earlier days of the republic, on the accession of a new President, few changes were made in the minor offices in the public service; but when Andrew Jackson was elected, what is known as the principle of rotation in office, was introduced. Jackson claimed that the various public offices under an administration should be filled by the friends of the administration, and not by its avowed enemies, or by men who were indifferent to

its success. He, therefore, on coming to the Presidency, removed many of the government office-holders throughout the country, and appointed his own personal and political friends in their stead.

From that time forward, every President in turn has followed his example. This pernicious policy has been the source of much corruption and disorder at the beginning of each successive administration, and many remedies have been, from time to time, proposed for its correction. Finally, in 1871, a law was passed by Congress authorizing the President to institute a reform of the Civil Service. Commissioners were appointed by President Grant, to pass upon the qualifications of applicants for positions under the government. This plan was tried until 1874, when, Congress refusing longer to provide the necessary means for its continuance, it was abandoned.

The subject was then buried out of sight until the tragic death of President Garfield, at the hands of a disappointed office-seeker. This aroused popular attention to the necessity of decided action on the question, and a strict Civil Service law was accordingly enacted in 1883, during the administration of President Arthur. Under this law, applicants for office were required to pass a competitive examination before a special board of examiners. At first the system was in a rather crude state, but its faults were soon remedied, and succeeding Presidents have much increased the number of offices to which it is applied. As a result, it is believed that these offices are

now filled by a better class of men; and the President, relieved from the care of filling them, can now devote more of his attention to weightier matters.

Politics.—At the election of 1884 there were four candidates for President before the people. The Republicans nominated James G. Blaine, of Maine, who had been Secretary of State for a short time under the Garfield-Arthur administration. The Democrats nominated Grover Cleveland, who was then Governor of New York State. Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, was the candidate of the "People's Party", and John P. St. John, of Kansas, the candidate of the "Prohibition Party".

GROVER CLEVELAND.

The contest was carried on with great enthusiasm on all sides. Many questions were discussed before the people, and monster processions paraded through the streets of the principal cities. When the votes were finally counted, the Democratic candidate was declared elected; and thus the Democratic party, after an interval of almost a quarter of a century, was restored to power.

CLEVELAND'S FIRST ADMINISTRATION.

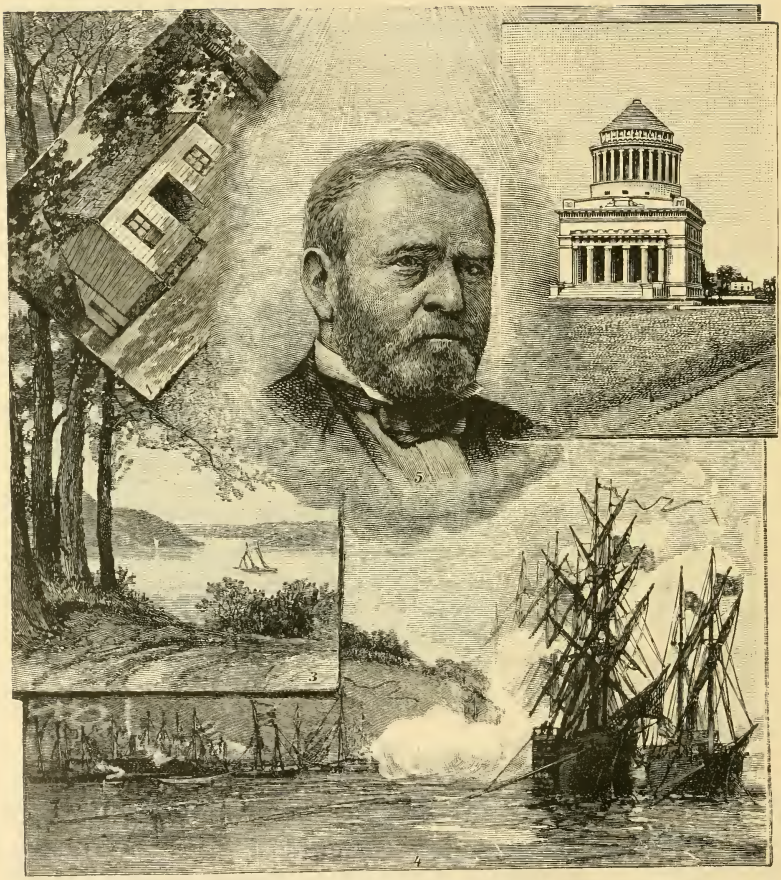
(ONE TERM—1885-1889.)

Civil Service Reform.—The work of reforming the civil service of the country which had been begun under the administration of President Arthur was continued by President Cleveland with earnest and intelligent zeal. The principle of fitness alone was laid down as the only principle on which appointments to the public service were to be justified.

The Death of General Grant (1885).—General Ulysses S. Grant died at Mount McGregor, New York, on the 23d of July. The death of the great soldier of the Civil War was an event of historical interest.

Smitten with a painful and incurable disease, he for months suffered with a tranquil fortitude which deeply touched the heart of the people all over the country. While his strength was gradually wasting away, the old hero spent his closing days writing the story of his life, which he desired to leave behind him as a legacy to his countrymen.

The death of no American, save Washington, Lincoln, and Garfield, so moved the popular feeling as did that of General Grant. When his death was announced, emblems of mourning were everywhere displayed, and city vied with city for the honor of his sepulture. The place selected for his final resting-place was Riverside Park, in New York City, on a beautiful spot overlooking the Hudson River.



THE SCENE OF GENERAL GRANT'S TOMB, ETC.

The day of his burial, August 8th, was observed throughout the country as a holiday. His funeral was attended by the President and the chief officers of the

government, by the governors of many of the States, and by the most distinguished citizens of the country. An imposing military escort, representing the regular army and the militia of several States, followed his bier with solemn tread, while the people, gathered from near and afar, lined the way for miles, with uncovered heads, to testify their sorrow for the nation's loss. Federal and Confederate veterans, victors and vanquished of the great Civil War, marched side by side in the long procession, to do honor to the memory of the illustrious soldier who had preserved the Union, and whose last message to his countrymen was an ardent plea for the cessation of sectional strife and animosity.

The Charleston Earthquake. — In August, 1886, an earthquake was felt in most of the states east of the Mississippi River, but especially in South Carolina. In Charleston, ten million dollars' worth of property was destroyed, and many people were killed or injured by falling buildings. Even the finest churches and public buildings, the historical landmarks of the city, were damaged or destroyed. Awful as was their experience, the people pluckily began at once to clear away the wreck of their homes, and to build a new city on the ruins of the old.

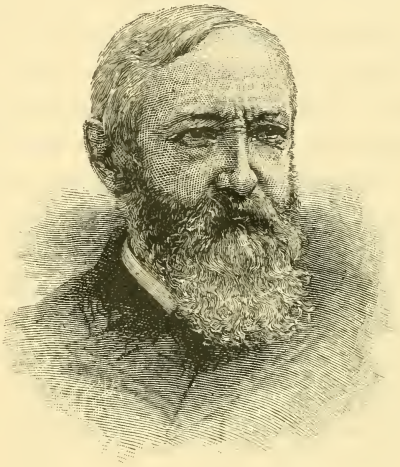
The Tariff Question (1887).—During the administration of President Cleveland many questions of interest, domestic and foreign, came up for discussion; but the one which attracted most attention throughout the country was that relating to the tariff. We have seen how that troublesome question had agitated the people during

the administrations of Presidents Monroe and Jackson. The existing tariff laws, enacted during the Civil War, produced more revenue than was now needed, and a large surplus was accumulating in the treasury. President Cleveland objected to all plans for spending the money extravagantly, and proposed a revision of the tariff, to reduce the revenues by lowering the duties on all the necessary articles of life, and on raw materials used by our manufacturers, such as wool, tin, and iron ores.

A bill embodying the President's ideas was introduced in Congress. This was popularly known as the "Mills Bill." It passed the House of Representatives, but was defeated by the Senate, in which a majority were Republicans, who believed in a high rate of duty on imports for the benefit of American labor.

Politics.—The economic discussions in Congress growing out of the Mills Bill put the issue of revenue reform fairly before the country. Grover Cleveland, as the exponent of the reform idea, was renominated for President by the Democratic party, Allen G. Thurman of Ohio being nominated for Vice-President. Benjamin Harrison of Indiana and Levi P. Morton of New York were selected as the candidates of the Republican party; the former for President and the latter for Vice-President. There were other candidates representing various social and industrial issues; but the main contest lay between the two great historic parties. The campaign, while exceedingly animated and earnest, was conducted with great good nature by both sides. All the different phases of

protection and of tariff reform, with their effects on the interests of the country, were debated in every State by able speakers. The effect of this was good, for it led the people to study a very interesting and difficult question, and it is the free discussion of just such questions that makes the American citizen an intelligent patriot. The result of the contest was in favor of the Republican candidates, who received a majority of the Electoral votes, while the Democratic candidates received a greater number of the popular votes. How this could happen we can not now stop to explain, but you may learn all about it by referring to the larger histories of the United States, or to some good work on civil government.



BENJAMIN HARRISON.

HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1889-1893.)

Centennial Celebration of the Founding of the Government (1889).—The administration of President Cleveland closed the first century of the history of our repub-

lic. With the inauguration of President Harrison the nation began the second century of its career, and, to celebrate the event, preparations for a great national festival were made. New York was chosen as the place for the festivities, as Washington had been inaugurated there. These festivities extended over three days, April 29, 30, and May 1, with a naval display, and military and civic pageants which were witnessed by six millions of people.

The Johnstown Disaster (1889).—An appalling disaster occurred in the Conemaugh Valley, in Pennsylvania, on May 31, 1889. The valley, lying between precipitous hills, derives its name from the Conemaugh River, which flows through it. The prosperous city of Johnstown, situated in a broad basin at the foot of the valley, contained twenty-five thousand inhabitants. Above Johnstown, mountain streams enter into the Conemaugh. Near one of these, the South Fork, had been formed, as a pleasure resort, a large artificial lake three miles long, the waters of which, three hundred feet higher than Johnstown, were held in check by an immense dam. A freshet in the North Fork River caused the water of the lake to overflow and burst through the dam; and the released water, rushing madly down into the narrow valley, carried every thing before it. The city of Johnstown received the fury of the flood. The river, rising rapidly with the torrent from above, spread across the valley, and, gaining violence as it went, lifted the houses from their foundations, and dashed them to pieces. Men, women, and children, unable to flee to the hills,

were caught up by the awful waters and drowned in an instant, while hundreds of others, clinging to the wrecks of houses, were carried swiftly down the seething river to their death.

Tariff and Politics.—A new tariff was adopted in 1890. The McKinley Act, as it was called, made the duty on some things lower, but raised it on many others.

For the next election President Harrison was renominated by the Republicans, and Ex-President Cleveland was again nominated by the Democrats, while the People's Party nominated James B. Weaver. The Democrats elected their candidate, and also gained a majority in both Houses of Congress, for the first time since the Civil War.

New States.—Six States were admitted into the Union during Harrison's administration—North and South Dakota, Montana, and Washington in 1889, and Idaho and Wyoming in 1890.

CLEVELAND'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM—1893-1897.)

Financial Depression and Tariff.—In the spring of 1893 various causes brought about a monetary crisis, and President Cleveland called an extra session of Congress to repeal that part of the Sherman act of 1890 which required the government to purchase four and a half million ounces of silver per month. It was repealed in November. The next regular session of Congress devoted its energies chiefly to a readjustment of the tariff. The

outcome of this was a slight reduction of the tariff, embodied in the Gorman-Wilson tariff bill, which became a law August 27, 1894.

The World's Columbian Exposition.—In May, 1893, a great industrial exhibition, authorized by act of Congress, to celebrate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Columbus, was opened at Chicago. Its grounds covered more than a square mile, and the architectural beauty of its buildings made the "White City" a glorious triumph of American skill and energy. All nations of the earth were represented; and during the six months of its continuance there were recorded more than 21,000,000 paid admissions.

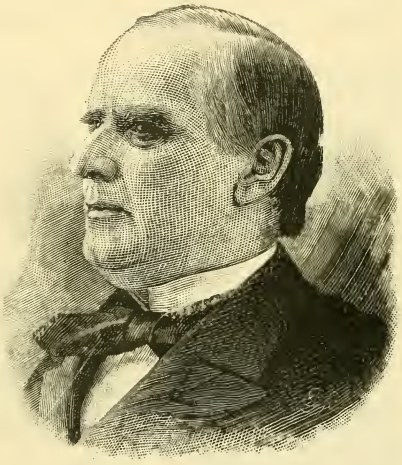
Labor Troubles and Politics.—In 1894 there were great railroad strikes at Chicago and other western cities. Many trains were stopped, and President Cleveland sent United States troops to Chicago to restore order. The country was also agitated during this administration by the question whether or not silver should be restored to its old place beside gold as standard money, and this was the main question in the election of 1896. The Republicans, in favor of the existing single gold standard, nominated William McKinley of Ohio for President; and William J. Bryan of Nebraska, in favor of silver, was the presidential candidate of most of the Democrats and of the People's Party. McKinley was elected; and four years later he was again elected over Bryan.

New State.—In the year 1896, Utah was admitted to the Union as the forty-fifth State.

McKINLEY'S ADMINISTRATION.

(ONE TERM AND SIX MONTHS—1897-1901.)

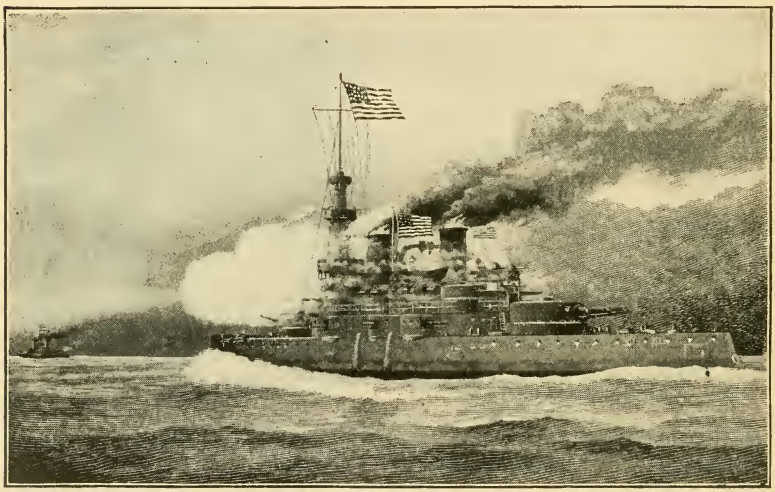
The Tariff.—Soon after his inauguration President McKinley called the Congress together, and it passed the Dingley tariff act (1897). The new duties were on the average a little higher than the old, so as to give greater protection to home industries; and the new tariff was also designed to raise more revenue, since the government now needed more money for its expenses than it was getting under existing laws.



WILLIAM McKINLEY.

The War with Spain.—The island of Cuba had been a Spanish colony for about 400 years, when in 1895 a rebellion broke out there which Spain was unable to subdue. During the struggle our trade with Cuba fell off greatly because of the devastation of the island, our people were shocked at the suffering of the Cuban people, and on February 15, 1898, our battle-ship Maine was blown up in Havana harbor by a torpedo or mine. For these reasons our Congress demanded that Spain withdraw from the island, and war with Spain began on April 21.

The first battle of the war was on May 1, when Commodore Dewey's ships completely destroyed a Spanish fleet in Manila Bay in the Philippine Islands. Another Spanish fleet soon after took refuge in the fortified harbor of Santiago de Cuba, where it was blockaded by our ships under the command of Admiral Sampson and Commodore Schley. A United States army under General Shafter was



DESTROYING THE SPANISH FLEET AT SANTIAGO.

landed near by, and after severe fighting demanded the surrender of Santiago. The Spanish fleet then sailed out of the harbor, but was quickly destroyed in a desperate battle with our ships (July 3).

Santiago and the eastern end of Cuba were soon surrendered to the United States, and a new army under General

Miles then began to occupy Porto Rico, another Spanish colony. In August, Spain agreed to withdraw from the West Indies; and hostilities came to an end, after the city of Manila was captured (August 13) by Dewey's ships and an army under General Merritt that had been sent from our Pacific coast. By the final treaty of peace, Spain gave up all claim to Cuba, and ceded Porto Rico and the Philippines to the United States. In 1899 some of the people of the Philippines, under Aguinaldo, made war on our army there; but they were defeated and dispersed.

Hawaii.—During the war with Spain the Hawaiian Islands were peaceably annexed to the United States by a resolution of Congress signed by the President July 7, 1898.

McKinley Assassinated.—On September 6, 1901, President McKinley was treacherously shot by an anarchist at Buffalo. He died the next week, and was succeeded by the Vice President, Theodore Roosevelt of New York, who in 1904 was elected President for the next term also.

ROOSEVELT'S ADMINISTRATION.

(Nearly two terms—1901-1909.)

Panama Canal.—It was in Roosevelt's administration that the United States began work on the Panama canal (1904). Our government secured a ten-mile strip across the Isthmus of Panama, and bought from a French company all its rights in a canal which it had partly dug there. This canal provides a short passage for the largest ships from ocean to ocean, and so is of great value to the commerce of the world.

The San Francisco Earthquake. — One morning in April, 1906, just before sunrise, the people of San Francisco and other places in western California were awakened by a severe earthquake. Many buildings withstood the shocks, but many others were damaged, and some were shaken down. Hundreds of persons were killed in the falling ruins, and many more were injured. In San Francisco fires quickly broke out in the damaged buildings and could not be extinguished because the water mains were broken by the earthquake. The fires burned for days, till most of the city was destroyed. A vast multitude of homeless people sought shelter in tents, and for a time there was danger of famine; but food and other supplies were furnished promptly by the United States and State governments and many persons all over the country. Not disheartened by their terrible disaster, the people of San Francisco began at once to rebuild their homes and places of business.

New State.—In 1907 Oklahoma (including Indian Territory) became a State. The Territories of Arizona and New Mexico were also given the privilege of forming one State, if each should vote in favor of uniting; but Arizona voted against it.

Politics.—In 1908 the Republicans nominated William H. Taft, of Ohio, for President; and the Democrats, for the third time, nominated William J. Bryan (p. 232). Both parties declared in favor of a revision of the tariff, and in favor of many other reforms. Taft was elected.

TAFT'S ADMINISTRATION

(One term — 1909-1913)

Peary at the North Pole.—For three hundred years many bold attempts had been made by explorers to reach the North Pole; but the difficulties and dangers of Arctic exploration had proved too much for them all. In 1909, however, Commander Robert E. Peary, an officer of the United States navy, succeeded in reaching that most northern point of the globe.

The Tariff.—A special session of Congress in 1909 adopted a new tariff act, which lowered the duty on some articles but increased it on others. A tax was also laid upon the earnings of large corporations.

New States.—In 1912 New Mexico and Arizona were admitted to the Union as the forty-seventh and forty-eighth States.

Constitutional Amendments.—While Taft was President two amendments to the Constitution were proposed by Congress, and both were adopted and went into effect in the year 1913. The sixteenth amendment gives Congress full power to tax incomes. The seventeenth amendment provides for the direct election of United States senators by the voters. Previously such senators had been chosen by the legislatures of the States.

Politics.—In 1912 the Republicans renominated President Taft; the Democrats nominated Woodrow Wilson, of New Jersey; and the new Progressive party nominated ex-President Roosevelt. Roosevelt received more votes than Taft, but Wilson received most of all, and was elected.

WILSON'S ADMINISTRATION

(TWO TERMS—1913–1921.)

The Tariff.—A special session of Congress in 1913 passed a tariff act that lowered the duty on many articles, and added others to the free list, which means the list of articles that can be imported without paying any duty.

The Panama Canal.—In 1914 the Panama Canal was completed and opened for traffic. It shortens by thousands of miles the distance between Atlantic and Pacific ports.

War in Mexico.—For some years after 1911 there were civil wars in Mexico. One president after another was overthrown, and there was great destruction of life and property. The United States took possession of the Mexican city of Vera Cruz and held it for a few months. Then the strongest of the Mexican generals, Carranza, was recognized as the head of the Mexican government. His rival, Villa, thereupon raided our country and killed some of our people. American soldiers were sent into Mexico to capture Villa, but failed to do so. Carranza objected to our invasion of his country. President Wilson sent more soldiers to the border to be ready in case of war, and at length, in 1917, withdrew our troops from Mexico.

War in Europe.—In 1914 a great war broke out among the nations of Europe. It spread gradually until fourteen nations were engaged. The United States remained neutral but both sides interfered with our rights. The English, in cutting off German commerce, stopped our ships to examine their cargoes and delayed them for weeks. Against such acts the United States made several protests.

The Germans sank some of our ships and also other ships

on which our citizens were traveling. When the *Lusitania*, an English steamship, was sunk by a German submarine without giving the passengers time to escape, 114 Americans were drowned. The United States strongly protested against this and other similar acts, and after long delay Germany agreed not to sink unarmed vessels without warning.

Politics.—In 1916 the Democrats renominated President Wilson. The Republican candidate was Charles Evans Hughes, of New York. President Wilson was reëlected.

New Possessions.—In 1916 our country bought from Denmark three small islands in the West Indies. They are important because they command one of the principal passages leading to the Panama Canal.

War with Germany.—Early in 1917 Germany declared that she would sink not only all her enemies' ships but also all neutral ships found in a large region about Great Britain and France. Her submarines did sink many such ships, including some under our flag. Such sinkings were acts of war. About this time, too, Germany was urging Mexico to make war on us.

In April, 1917, President Wilson asked Congress to accept and declare the state of war thrust upon us by the German government. Congress did so, and within a few months it provided for raising and spending $20,000,000,000 on the war, for building many ships and airplanes, for government control of prices, and for raising large armies, mostly by "selective conscription" or draft. Our navy at once engaged in the war, and two million soldiers were sent to France, in spite of desperate attempts by German submarines to sink our transports. Under the command of General John

J. Pershing, our soldiers quickly mastered the new methods of war, surprised the enemy by their skill and bravery, and won great victories at Château-Thierry, St. Mihiel, the Argonne, and many other places. British, French, and Italian soldiers also won so many victories that Germany was forced to give up the war.

November 11, 1918, Germany signed an armistice by which she surrendered her submarines, many guns, and much other

VICTORIOUS AMERICAN TROOPS IN PARIS, FOURTH OF JULY PARADE, 1918

property, and allowed the American and Allied armies to occupy part of Germany until treaties of peace should be made. President Wilson went to France to take part in framing the treaties and in forming a league of nations to prevent future wars. In Germany, meanwhile, the autocratic rulers who had brought on the great war were set aside, and the German people began the formation of a new government.

Amendments.—The people of our country showed their hearty support of the war in many ways, — as by lending the government about $22,000,000,000 in two years, paying

heavy taxes, giving money to the Red Cross and other organizations to help the soldiers. Besides, they had to pay high prices for food, coal, and many other things in which there was a scarcity caused by the war. To save food, Congress stopped the use of grain in making liquor, and finally proposed an amendment to the constitution, prohibiting the liquor traffic entirely. This amendment was ratified early in 1919. Another amendment, giving women the right to vote, was ratified in 1920.

Politics.—In 1920 the Democrats nominated James M. Cox of Ohio for President, and the Republicans nominated Warren G. Harding of Ohio, who was elected.

ADMINISTRATIONS OF HARDING AND COOLIDGE

(HARDING, 1921–1923; COOLIDGE, 1923–1929.)

Important Treaties.—The Senate having rejected the treaty proposed by President Wilson, a new treaty of peace was made with Germany; and the United States did not join the League of Nations. President Harding called a conference, which met at Washington late in 1921, to discuss several important international problems. Nine nations were represented. Treaties were made to limit the naval strength of five great powers, and to provide for future conferences in any dispute that may arise over island possessions in the Pacific Ocean.

The Tariff.—In 1922 the Fordney-McCumber tariff bill was passed. This raised the duty on a number of articles.

Coolidge Becomes President.—In 1923 President Harding died while returning from a trip to Alaska. Vice President

Calvin Coolidge became President and was continued in office for another term by the election of 1924.

An important law passed in 1924 greatly restricted the number of immigrants allowed to enter this country each year. Immigrants of the yellow and brown races were excluded entirely. In the same year a Bonus Bill was passed giving extra pay to veterans of the World War (the War with Germany), in the form of insurance policies to be paid in twenty years.

On August 27, 1928, the Kellogg treaty for the prevention of war was signed by men from fifteen nations. All other countries also were invited to join in the treaty. Each nation that ratifies it, promises not to make war on any of the others that ratify it.

Politics.—In 1928 Governor Alfred E. Smith was the Democratic candidate for President and Herbert C. Hoover was the Republican candidate. In this campaign the nominees and other speakers were heard in speeches over the radio by most of the voters. The tariff, prohibition, and other issues were discussed. Hoover was elected by a large majority.

QUESTIONS.

1. In what manner was slavery abolished throughout the United States? What question in regard to the Southern States caused much trouble? What were President Johnson's views upon the subject? What stand did Congress take? For what action was the President impeached? How did the trial result? Tell about the restoration of the Southern States. How many of them were not allowed to take part in electing the next President? How many amendments were made to the Constitution? What did the thirteenth amendment provide for?—the fourteenth?—the fifteenth? When, and from what nation, was Alaska purchased? Of what value is that territory to this country? When was Nebraska admitted as a State? Who planned and carried out the laying of an ocean cable? Tell about the different attempts that were made, and their success. Who were the candidates for President in 1868? Who was elected as the eighteenth President?
2. What great enterprise reached completion in 1869? Whose dream did the Pacific Railroad realize? What was the Alabama Question? In what way was the difficulty finally settled? What effect did this result have upon the people of the two countries? When did the Chicago fire occur?—the fire in the lumber regions?—the Boston fire? Give particulars in regard to each. Why was the "Liberal Republican Party" formed? Who were candidates for President at the next election? Which was successful?
3. Tell about the "Panic of 1873". When and where was the "Centennial Exhibition" held? Give an account of its success. What Indian war took place in 1873? What act of treachery was committed by the Indians? What was the result of the war? When did the Sioux war occur? What terrible massacre took place? How was the war terminated? Who were the candidates for President at the next election? In what manner was the dispute about the election set at rest? Who was declared elected?
4. What was the condition of the country in 1877? When did paper money become equal in value to gold? What was the cause of the "Railroad Riots"? Tell about the "Yellow Fever Epidemics". How did they produce better feelings between the North and South? Who was elected as the next President? What State was admitted to the Union in 1876?
5. In what way was President Garfield looked upon by the people of all parties? Tell about his assassination. Who became President? In what way did Arthur perform his duties? Give an account of "Civil Service Reform". When was the "Civil Service Bill" passed? What was the object of the law? Name the four candidates at the next election. Who was elected? Name the candidates at each election since.
6. Tell about our war with Spain. Tell about our war with Germany.
7. Name the Presidents in their order from Washington to the one now in office. Name in their order the States admitted to the Union from the close of the Revolution to the present time.

INDEX.

Acadia, capture of, 74, 75; the people taken from, 80.
Adams, John, a Federalist leader, 123; President, 123–125.
Adams, John Quincy, President, 143, 144.
Adams, Samuel, a Democratic leader, 123.
Alabama, De Soto in, 24; admitted, 141; secedes, 166.
Alabama, the, privateer, 202; controversy with England concerning, 215.
Alaska, the purchase of, 213.
Albany, N. Y., Dutch settlement at, 38.
Albemarle Colony, the, 63.
Alexandria, Va., capture of, 173.
Alien and Sedition Laws, the, 125.
Allen, Ethan, captures Ticonderoga, 98.
Amendments to the Constitution, the thirteenth, 211; the fourteenth, 212; the fifteenth, 213; the sixteenth and seventeenth, 237; the eighteenth and nineteenth, 241.
America, discovered, 18; named, 21.
Anderson, Major Robert, 172.
André, Major John, 110.
Anna, Santa, Mexican general, 154.
Antietam, the battle of, 188.
Appomattox Court House, Va., 207.
Arizona, admitted, 236, 237.
Arkansas, acquired, 128; admitted, 147; secedes, 173.
Arkansas River, discovered, 70.
Arlington, Va., capture of, 173.
Arnold, Benedict, before Quebec, 99; his treason, 109; commands British force in Virginia, 113.
Arthur, Chester A., President, 222–224.
Astrolabe, the, 16; a picture of an, 11.
Atlanta, in Civil War, 203.
Augur, Gen. C. C., 197.

Bacon, Nathaniel, rebellion of, 37.
Balboa, discovers Pacific Ocean, 22.
Ball's Bluff, Va., the battle of, 176.
Baltimore, Lord, founds Maryland, 50.
Bank, United States, Jackson's conflict with the, 145; Tyler's vetoes, 149.
Banks, General N. P., 196, 199.
Baton Rouge, La., capture of, 181.
Beauregard, General, at Fort Sumter, 172; at Shiloh, 180; at Bull Run, 175.
Bell, John, a candidate, 165.
Bemis' Heights, the battle of, 104.
Bennington, the battle of, 104.
Berkeley, Lord, proprietor of New Jersey, 48, 49.
Berkeley, Sir William, governor of Virginia, 37.
Black Hawk war, the, 147.
Blaine, James G., a candidate, 224.
Blockade-Running, 177.
Bon Homme Richard, the, 108.
Booth, John Wilkes, assassin, 207.
Boston, Mass., settlement of, 46; the massacre, 92; the tea-party, 93; the British besieged in, 97; evacuation of, 100; fire in, 216.
Braddock, General, 78, 79.
Bradford, Governor of Plymouth, 45.
Bragg, General Braxton, at Perryville, 189; at Murfreesborough, 191; at Chickamauga, 197; at Chattanooga, 198.
Brandywine, the battle of, 102.
Breckinridge, John C., a candidate, 165.
Brown, John, 164.
Buchanan, James, President, 163–168.
Buell, General D. C., 181, 189.
Buena Vista, the battle of, 155.
Bull Run, the battle of, 174, 175; the second battle of, 187.
Bunker Hill, the battle of, 97.
Burgoyne, General, 104–106.
Burlington, N. J., settlement of, 49.
Burnside, General A. E., in North Carolina, 181; in Virginia, 188; at Fredericksburg, 189; at Knoxville, 199.
Butler, Benjamin F., a candidate, 224.

Cabot, John and Sebastian, 21.
Calhoun, John C., elected Vice-President, 144; a portrait of, 146.
California, explored by Drake, 26; captured by Kearney and Fremont, 157; gold in, 158; admitted, 160.
Camden, S. C., the battle of, 112.
Canals, building of, 143.
Canby, General E. R. S., 217.

Canonicus and Governor Bradford, 45.
Caravel, picture of a, 11.
Carolinas, the settlement of, 62–65.
Carteret, Lord, proprietor, 48, 49.
Carteret, Sir Philip, governor, 49.
Carteret Colony, the, 64.
Cartier, Jacques, discoverer, 23.
Cass, Lewis, a candidate, 160.
Catholics, in Maryland, 50.
Cedar Creek, the battle of, 202.
Centennial Exhibition, the, 217.
Cerro Gordo, the battle of, 156.
Champlain, explorer, 69.
Chancellorsville, Va., the battle of, 192.
Charleston, S. C., founding of, 64; French and Spanish attack on, 75; attacked and captured by the British, 100, 108, 110; the Confederates evacuate, 206; earthquake in, 227.
Charlestown, Mass., founding of, 46.
Charter Oak, story of the, 56.
Chattanooga, the siege of, 197.
Chicago, site of, visited by Marquette, 70; fire in, 215; exposition in, 232.
Chickamauga, the battle of, 197.
Chippewa, the battle of, 136.
Civil Service reform, 222–225.
Clayborne's rebellion in Maryland, 50.
Clay, Henry, favors the Missouri Compromise, 141; compromises the tariff difficulty with South Carolina, 145; a portrait of, 146; a candidate, 150; compromise for the admission of California, 160.
Cleveland, Grover, President, 224–229, 231–233; a portrait of, 224.
Cold Harbor, the battle of, 201.
Colorado, acquired, 128, 159; admitted, 218.
Columbian Exposition, World's, 232.
Columbus, Christopher, plan of, 16; first voyage, 16–20; later voyages, 20; death, 21.
Compass, the mariner's, 11, 16.
Compromises, Missouri, 141; the tariff, with South Carolina, 145; that for the admission of California, 160.
Concord, Mass., the British at, 94.
Conemaugh Valley, Pa., flood in, 230.
Confederate Government, formed, 166.
Congress declares the rights of the colonies, 91; resolves to resist unjust laws, 94; calls a Convention of the States, 118.
Connecticut, the settlement and history of, 53–56; in Queen Anne's war, 75.
Constitution, formation of, 119; adoption of, 120; amendments to, 211–213, 237, 241.
Constitution, takes the Guerrière, 134.
Coolidge, Calvin, President, 241, 242.
Corinth, the battle of, 189.
Cornwallis, Lord, in New Jersey, 101, 102; in the South, 112; surrender, 114.
Cowpens, the battle of, 112.
Creek War, the, 135.
Crown Point, captured, 82, 104.
Cuba, discovered by Columbus, 20.
Cumberland, the, sunk, 182.
Custer, General George A., death of, 218.

Davis, Jefferson, President of the Confederacy, 166, 167.
Decatur, Lieutenant, 127, 139.
Declaration of Independence, the, 100.
Delaware, colonial history of, 58, 59.
Delaware, Lord, in Virginia, 34.
Democratic Party, origin and distinctive principles of, 123; and the United States Bank, 141; on internal improvements, 142; on the tariff question, 142, 236; elects Thomas Jefferson, 125; elects James Madison, 131; elects James Monroe, 139; elects Andrew Jackson, 144; elects Martin Van Buren, 147; elects James K. Polk, 150; elects Franklin Pierce, 161; elects James Buchanan, 163; the division of, 165; elects Grover Cleveland, 224, 231; elects Woodrow Wilson, 237.
De Narvaez tries to conquer Florida, 23.
De Soto, Ferdinand, in Florida, 23, 24; discovers the Mississippi River, 24.
Detroit, Mich., La Salle at, 71; surrendered to the British, 132.
Dinwiddie, Governor of Virginia, 77.
Disputed Presidential Election, the, 218.
District of Columbia, the, slave-trading prohibited in, 160.
Dorchester Heights, occupied by the American army, 100.
Dorchester, Mass., founding of, 46.
Douglas, Stephen A., 161, 165.
Drake, Sir Francis, 26, 27.
Dred Scott case, 164.
Dutch West India Company, the, 38.

Early, General Jubal A., 202.
Electoral Commission, the, 218.
Elizabethtown, N. J., founding of, 49.
Emancipation Proclamation, the, 192.

Embargo Act, the, 129; its effect, 130.
Endicott, John, colonist, 45.
Era of good feeling, the, 140.
Ericsson, Captain, 182.
Erie, Lake, explored by La Salle, 71; Perry's victory on, 134.
Eutaw Springs, the battle of, 113.

Farragut, Admiral D. G., 181, 204.
Federalist Party, the, origin of, 123; elects John Adams, 123; opposes the war of 1812, 131; destruction of, 139.
Field, Cyrus W., 214.
Fillmore, Millard, President, 161.
Fires, in Chicago, 215; in Boston, 216; in Michigan, etc., 216.
Fisher's Hill, the battle of, 202.
Five Forks, the battle of, 206.
Florida, discovered, 22; attempted conquest of, 23; acquired, 141; the Seminole war in, 147; admitted, 151; secession of, 166.
Fort Donelson, the capture of, 179.
Fort Duquesne, expeditions against, 77, 78; captured, 81.
Fort Edward, captured, 104.
Fort Fisher, N. C., the capture of, 204.
Fort Frontenac, the capture of, 82.
Fort Henry, the capture of, 179.
Fort Necessity, Washington at, 77.
Fort Niagara, attacked, 80; captured, 82.
Fort Pulaski, Ga., the capture of, 182.
Fort Sumter, capture of, 172.
Fort William Henry, capture of, 81.
France, treaty of alliance with, 107.
Fredericksburg, Va., the battle of, 188.
Freehold, N. J., settlement of, 49.
Free-soil party, the, 159, 160, 162.
Fremont, General, in Mexican war, 157; a candidate, 163; in the battle of Cross Keys, 185.
French and Indian war, the, 76.
Frobisher, explorer, 26.
Fugitive-Slave Law, the, 161.
Fulton, Robert, inventor, 131.

Gage, General, 94.
Garfield, James A., President, 220; assassinated, 221.
Gates, General Horatio, at Bemis' Heights, 104; Burgoyne's surrender to, 106; at Camden, 112.
Georgia, De Soto in, 24; settlement and history of, 65–67; sends rice to Boston, 93; secession of, 166.
Germantown, Pa., founding of, 62; the battle of, 103.
Gettysburg, Pa., the battle of, 194.
Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 26.
Gold, in California, 157, 158.
Gorges, Ferdinand, 56, 57.
Grant, General Ulysses S., captures Forts Henry and Donelson, 179; at Shiloh, 180; in other battles, 189–191, 195–202; at Appomattox Court House, 206; portraits of, 190, 205; President, 214–218; civil service reform under, 223; death, 225.
Greeley, Horace, a candidate, 216.
Green Bay, site of, French at, 71.
Greene, General Nathanael, 112.
Guerrière, the, captured, 134.
Guilford Court House, the battle of, 112.
Guiteau, Chas. J., assassin, 221.

Haiti, discovered by Columbus, 20.
Hamilton, Alexander, 121, 123.
Hampton Roads, Va., battle in, 182.
Harding, Warren G., President, 241.
Harper's Ferry, Va., 164, 173.
Harrison, General W. H., at Tippecanoe, 131; on the Thames, 135; President, 149.
Harrison, General Benjamin, President, 229.
Hartford, Conn., settlement of, 53.
Harvard College, founding of, 48.
Hawaii annexed, 235.
Hayes, Rutherford B., President, 219.
Hennepin, explores the Mississippi, 71.
Holly Springs, Miss., captured, 191.
Hood, General J. B., 203, 204.
Hooker, General Joseph, 192, 198.
Hoover, Herbert C., President, 242.
Horse-shoe Bend, the battle of, 136.
Howe, General, 98, 99.
Hudson, Henry, discoverer, 28.
Huguenots, in America, 25.
Hull, General, surrenders Detroit, 132.
Hull, Captain Isaac, 134.

Idaho, acquired, 128; admitted, 233.
Illinois, explored, 71; admitted, 141.
Illinois River, discovered, 70.
Impeachment of President Johnson, 212.
Impressment of seamen, 129.
Independence, the Declaration of, 100.
Indiana, admitted, 140.
Indians found early in this country, 11; called so by Columbus, 19; make war on Virginia, 36; Indian burial,

a picture of, 36; the Narragansetts threaten Plymouth, 45; King Philip's war, 46; the Pequod war, 53; picture of an Indian attack, 54; of Pennsylvania, friendly to the whites, 60; sell lands in the Carolinas, 63; Oglethorpe's treatment of, 66; in King William's war, 73; in Queen Anne's war, 74; in King George's war, 75; in the French and Indian war, 76; the Creek war, 135; war with the Sac and Fox Indians, 147; the Seminole war, 147; the Modoc war, 217; the Sioux war, 217, 218.
Internal improvements; ideas of the Whig and Democratic parties as to, 142.
Iowa, acquired, 128; admitted, 160.
Iuka, the battle of, 189.

Jackson, General Andrew, in the Creek war, 136; at New Orleans, 137; President, 144–147; portrait of, 145.
Jackson, "Stonewall," in the Shenandoah Valley, 185, 186; at Chancellorsville, 193; his death, 194; portrait of, 205.
Jamestown, settlement at, 29, 37.
Jefferson, Thomas, in Washington's Cabinet, 121; portrait of, 121; a Democratic leader, 123; a candidate, 123; President, 125–131.
Jesuits, missionaries to the Indians, 69.
Johnson, Andrew, Vice-President, 208; President, 211–214.
Johnston, General A. S., 180.
Johnston, General Joseph E., at Fair Oaks, 186; attempts to relieve Vicksburg, 195; resists Sherman's advance, 203; portrait of, 205.
Johnstown, Pa., destroyed by flood, 230.
Joliet on the Mississippi River, 70.
Jones, Paul, captures the Serapis, 108.

Kansas, acquired, 128, 157; civil war in, 162; admitted, 168.
Kansas-Nebraska Bill, the, 161.
Kearney, General Stephen W., 154.
Kearsarge, the, sinks the Alabama, 203.
Kellogg Treaty, 242.
Kentucky, admitted, 124.
King George's war, 75.
King Philip's war, 46.
King William's war, 73.
Know-Nothing party, 163.

Lafayette, General, 113.
Lake Champlain, the battle of, 136.
Lake George, the battle of, 80.
La Salle, explorer, 71, 72.
League of Nations, 240.
Lee, General Robert E., in command of Confederate army, 186–189, 193, 200–202; at Appomattox Court House, 206; portrait of, 205.
Lee, Light-Horse Harry, 112.
Leisler's rebellion in New York, 41.
Leon, de, Ponce, discoverer, 22.
Lexington, Mass., battle of, 94, 95, 97.
Liberal-Republican party, the, 216.
Lincoln, Abraham, President, 165, 171–173, 185, 192, 207; portrait of, 165; death, 207.
Lincoln, General, at Charleston, 110.
London Company, 27, 28, 34.
Long Island, settled, 38; battle of, 100; Washington's retreat from, 101.
Longstreet, General, at Knoxville, 199.
Lookout Mountain, the battle of, 198.
Louisburg, twice captured, 75, 76, 82.
Louisiana, La Salle in, 71, 72; purchase of, 127; its extent, 128; state admitted, 140; secession of, 166.
Louisville, Ky., in Civil War, 189.
Lundy's Lane, the battle of, 136.

Mackinaw, a settlement planted at, 71.
Madison, James, suggests a convention of the States in 1786, 118; a Democratic leader, 123; President, 131–140.
Maine, settlement of, 57; in King William's War, 74; admitted, 141.
Manassas Junction, Va., 173.
Marblehead, Mass., aids Boston, 93.
Marco Polo, 15, 16.
Marion, General Francis, 111.
Marquette, explorer, 69.
Maryland, colonial history of, 50, 51.
Mason, Captain John, 55, 56.
Massachusetts Bay Colony, the, 45.
Massachusetts, early history of, 41–48; secures control of New Hampshire, 57; in King William's war, 74; in Queen Anne's war, 74; in King George's war, 75.
Massacre, the Boston, 92.
McClellan, General George B., in Western Virginia, 174; Commander-in-chief, 175; his Peninsular campaign, 184; is called to Washington, 187; at Antietam, 188.
McDonough, Commodore Thomas, 136.

McDowell, General Irvin, 175, 185.
McKinley, Wm., President, 232–235.
Meade, General George G., 194.
Menendez, 25.
Mexico, conquest of, 22; war with, 151–156; civil wars in, 238.
Michigan, La Salle in, 71; surrendered to the English, 132; retaken by Harrison, 135; admitted to the Union, 147; fire in, 216.
Middletown, N. J., settlement of, 49.
Minnesota, acquired, 128; admitted, 168; fire in, 216.
Minuit, Peter, 38, 58.
"Minute Men," the, 93.
Missionary Ridge, the battle of, 198.
Mississippi, De Soto in, 24; admitted, 141; secession of, 166.
Mississippi River, discovered by De Soto, 24; explored by French, 70–71.
Missouri, acquired, 128; slavery agitation, 140; admitted, 141; in civil war, 175.
Missouri Compromise, the, 140.
Missouri River, discovered by Marquette, 70.
Mobile, Ala., settlement of, 72.
Modocs, the, war with, 217.
Monitor, the, and the Merrimac, 182.
Monroe, James, President, 139–143.
Montana, acquired, 128; admitted, 231.
Montcalm, French commander, 81–83.
Monterey, the battle of, 154.
Montgomery, General, 99–100.
Montreal, Cartier at, 23; attacked, 74; captured, 83.
Morgan, General, 112.
Morristown, N. J., Washington at, 102.
Morse, Prof. Samuel F. B., 151.
Moultrie, Colonel, at Charleston, 100.
Mound Builders, the, 13.
Mount Vernon, Va., 115.
Murfreesboro, the battle of, 191.
Mutiny Act, the, 92.

Narragansetts, the, threaten Plymouth, 45; in King Philip's war, 46; refuse to join in the Pequod war, 53.
Nashville, Tenn., the siege of, 204.
Navigation Act, 86.
Nebraska, acquired, 128; admitted, 213.
Nevada, acquired, 157; admitted, 206.
New Amsterdam, settled, 29; becomes New York, 40; picture of, 39.
Newark, N. J., settlement of, 48.
Newbern, N. C., the capture of, 181.
New England, named and described by Captain John Smith, 42; King Philip's war in, 47; the league of, 55; becomes one royal province, 56.
New France, 23, 69.
New Hampshire, early history of, 56, 57; harassed by the French and the Indians, 74, 75.
New Haven Colony, settlement of, 55.
New Jersey, early history of, 48–50; Washington's retreat through, 101.
New Mexico, acquired, 157; admitted, 237.
New Netherland, 29.
New Orleans, settlement of, 72; the battle of, 137; captured by Farragut, 181.
New Sweden (Delaware), 58.
New York, harbor visited by Verrazani, 23; by Henry Hudson, 28; settlement and history of, 38–41; in King William's war, 74; in French and Indian war, 80; taken by the British, 100; Burgoyne in, 104; the first capital of the United States, 120.
Norfolk, Va., Navy Yard seized, 173.
North Carolina, early history of, 62, 63; secedes, 173.
North Dakota, acquired, 128; admitted, 231.
Northmen, in America, 14.
Nova Scotia, 69, 75.
Nullification in South Carolina, 144.

Oglethorpe, James, founds Georgia, 65.
Ohio, admitted, 131.
Ohio River, discovered by Marquette, 70; settlements on, 77.
Oklahoma, 236.
Old Ironsides (the Constitution), 134.
Ontario, Lake, explored by La Salle, 71.
Oregon, coast of, explored by Drake, 26; acquired, 128; admitted, 168.
Orinoco River, reached by Columbus, 20.
Oswego, Fort, captured by the French, 81.

Pacific Ocean, discovery of the, 22.
Pakenham, General, 138.
Palo Alto, the battle of, 152.
Panama Canal, 235, 238, 239.
Panics, of 1837, 148; of 1873, 217.
Parties, political, origin of, 119; Democrats and Federalists, 123, 131, 139; the Whig party, 141; the Free-soil party, 159; the Republican party,

162; extinction of the Whig party, 163; division of the Democratic party, 165; the Republican party gains control, 171; the Liberal-Republican party, 216; the Prohibition party, 224; the People's party, 224; the Progressive party, 237.
Peary, Robert E., explorer, 237.
Pemberton, General, 195.
Peninsular campaign, the, 184.
Penn, William, founds Pennsylvania, 59–62.
Pennsylvania, early history of, 59–62.
People's party, the, 224.
Pequod war, the, 53.
Perry, Captain Oliver H., 134, 135.
Perryville, the battle of, 189.
Personal Liberty laws passed, 163.
Petersburg, Va., Grant lays siege to, 201; Lee retreats from, 206.
Philadelphia, Pa., founding of, 60; British in, 102, 108; Centennial exhibition at, 217.
Pickens, a partisan leader, 111.
Pierce, Franklin, President, 161–163.
Pinckney, Charles C., in France, 124.
Pittsburg, Pa., French at, 77.
Plattsburg, N. Y., British attack, 136.
Plymouth Company, 27, 42.
Plymouth, the Puritans at, 43.
Pocahontas, 33.
Polk, James K., President, 150–160.
Pope, General John, 187.
Porter, Admiral, at Vicksburg, 191, 195; in the Red River expedition, 199.
Port Hudson, La., 181; capture of, 196.
Port Royal, 25; the Carteret colony at, 64; taken by Union forces, 177.
Potatoes, introduced into England, 27.
Prescott, Colonel, at Bunker Hill, 98.
Princeton, N. J., the battle of, 102.
Puritans, the, 42; at Plymouth, 43; character of, 47; on the way to church, a picture, 44.

Quakers, driven from Massachusetts, 48; settle at Burlington, N. J., 49; settle Pennsylvania, 59.
Quebec, founded, 69; colonial expedition against, 74; captured by General Wolfe, 82; attacked by Montgomery and Arnold, 99.
Queen Anne's war, 74.
Queenstown Heights, battle of, 133.

Railroad, the first in the United States, 143; completion of the Pacific, 214.
Raleigh, Sir Walter, 26, 27.
Rall, Colonel, at Trenton, 101.
Rebellions, of Bacon in Virginia, 37; of Leisler in New York, 41; of Clayborne in Maryland, 50; the Whiskey, in Pennsylvania, 122; of the Southern States, 166–208.
Red River Expedition, the, 199.
Reed, General Joseph, 107.
Republican party, organization of, 162, 163; elects Abraham Lincoln, 165; elects Ulysses S. Grant, 214; elects Rutherford B. Hayes, 218; elects James A. Garfield, 220; elects Benjamin Harrison, 231; elects William McKinley, 232; elects Theodore Roosevelt, 235; elects William H. Taft, 236.
Resaca de la Palma, Texas, the battle of, 152.
Revere, Paul, and his ride from Boston, 94.
Rhode Island, early history of, 51–53, 55.
Ribaut, Jean, at Port Royal, 25.
Richmond, siege of, by McClellan, 185; by Grant, 202; Lee retreats from, 206.
Rights, declaration of, 91.
Rio Grande, boundary, 157.
Roanoke Island, colony on, 26; capture of, by General Burnside, 181.
Rolfe, John, marries Pocahontas, 33.
Roosevelt, Theodore, President, 235.
Rosecrans, General W. S., in Western Virginia, 174; at Murfreesboro, 191; at Chickamauga, 197.

Sac and Fox Indians, war with, 147.
St. Anthony, Falls of, discovered, 71.
St. Augustine, Fla., settled, 25; besieged by Oglethorpe, 66; expedition against, from South Carolina, 75.
St. John, John P., a candidate, 224.
St. Johns River, Fla., colony on, 25.
St. Lawrence River, explored, 23, 69.
Salem, Mass., 46, 93.
San Francisco, visited by Drake, 26; effect of the discovery of gold on, 157; a picture of, 158; earthquake, 236.
San Salvador, Columbus lands at, 18.
Santa Fe, Spanish settlement at, 26.
Saratoga, the battle of, 104, 105.
Savannah, Ga., founded, 66; taken by British, 108; captured by Sherman, 204.

Schenectady, N. Y., destroyed, 74.
Scott, General Winfield, in War of 1812, 136; in Mexico, 156.
Secession, the doctrine of, 166, 171; of Southern States, 166, 173.
Sedgwick, General, 193.
Seminole war, the, 147.
Semmes, Captain Raphael, 203.
Serapis, the, captured, 109.
Seven days' battles, the, 186.
Seymour, Horatio, a candidate, 214.
Shenandoah Valley, in Civil War, 185, 202.
Sheridan, General P. H., in the Shenandoah Valley, 202; at Five Forks, 206; portrait of, 205.
Sherman, General W. T., attacks Vicksburg, 191; at Chattanooga, 198; at Knoxville, 199; Atlanta campaign, 203, 204; march to the sea, 204; march through the Carolinas, 206; portrait of, 205.
Shields, General, 185.
Shiloh, the battle of, 180.
Shrewsbury, N. J., settlement of, 49.
Sioux Indians, war with the, 218.
Slavery, introduced into Virginia, 35; introduced into Georgia, 67; extent of, in the time of Jefferson, 128; slave trade forbidden, 129; slavery in the North, and in the South, 140; the Missouri Compromise, 141; controversy concerning Texas, 150; Wilmot proviso, 159; slave-trading prohibited in the District of Columbia, 160; the Fugitive-Slave Law passed, 161; the Kansas-Nebraska bill, 161; the civil war in Kansas, 162; effect of the Fugitive-Slave Law on the North, 163; the Dred Scott case, 164; John Brown's raid, 164; the Democratic party divided by, 165; Lincoln's election considered a menace to, 166; the Emancipation proclamation, 192.
Smith, Captain John, 32; in Virginia, 32, 34; his account of New England, 42.
Smuggling, in the colonies, 88.
Sons of Liberty, societies of, 91.
South Carolina, history of, 64, 65; aids Boston, 93; in Revolutionary war, 110, 112; nullification troubles in, 145; secedes, 166.
South Dakota, acquired, 128; admitted, 231.
Spottsylvania Court House, battle, 201.
Squatter Sovereignty, 161.
Stamp Act, the, 90, 91.
Stark, General, at Bennington, 104.
Steam-boat, invented, 131.
Stephens, Alexander H., 166.
Stony Point, capture of, 108.
Stuyvesant, Peter, 40, 58.
Sumter, General Thomas, 111.

Taft, William H., President, 236, 237.
Tariff Question, explained, 142; in John Quincy Adams' term, 144; provokes Nullification in South Carolina, 144; Cleveland and the, 228; later acts, 231–233, 237, 238, 241.
Taylor, General Richard, 199.
Taylor, General Zachary, in Mexican war, 152, 154; portrait of, 154; President, 160–161.
Tea Tax, the, 92, 93.
Tecumseh, death of, 135.
Telegraph, 151; the Ocean, 213.
Tennessee, admitted, 124; secedes, 173.
Texas, La Salle in, 72; controversy concerning, 150; admitted, 160; secession of, 166.
Thames, the battle of the, 135.
Thomas, General George H., 197, 204.
Ticonderoga, Fort, in French and Indian war, 80, 81, 82; in Revolutionary war, 98, 104.
Tilden, Samuel J., a candidate, 218.
Tippecanoe, the battle of, 131.
Tobacco, in England, 27; in Virginia, 34; used as money, 34.
Trade, the Acts of, 87.
Treaty of Washington, the, 215.
Trenton, N. J., the battle of, 101.
Tripoli, the war with, 126.
Tyler, John, President, 149–150.

United States, formation of the, 118.
Utah, acquired, 157; admitted, 232.

Valley Forge, patriots at, 106, 107.
Van Buren, Martin, President, 147, 148; candidate of the Free-soil party, 160.
Van Dorn, General, 191.
Vera Cruz, captured by General Scott, 156.
Vermont, farmers capture Ticonderoga, 98; battle of Bennington, 104; admitted, 124.
Verrazani, explorer, 22, 23.
Vespucci, Amerigo, 21.

Veto, the meaning of, 146.
Vicksburg, Miss., 181; General Grant's plan of 1862, for the reduction of, 191; Sherman's repulse before, 192; the siege and capture of, by General Grant, 195.
Virginia, Sir Walter Raleigh's grant and colony in, 26, 27; settlement and history of, 31–38; depredations of Arnold in, 113; Cornwallis in, 113; secedes, 173.
Voyages, of Columbus, 17, 20; of the Cabots, 21; of Amerigo Vespucci, 21; of Ponce de Leon, 22; of Verrazani, 22; of Jacques Cartier, 23.

Wars; early Indian war in Virginia, 35; King Philip's war, 46; Pequod war, 53; King William's war, 73; Queen Anne's war, 74; King George's war, 75; French and Indian war, 76, 85; the Revolutionary war, 94–116; war with Tripoli, 126; war of 1812, 131–139; the Creek war, 135; war with the Barbary States, 139; with the Sac and Fox Indians, 147; the Seminole, 147; with Mexico, 151–157; civil war in Kansas, 162; the great Civil War, 171–208; Modoc war, 217; Sioux war, 218; war with Spain, 233; World War, 238–241.
Washington City, the British in, 136.
Washington, George, takes a message to the French commander, 77; in French and Indian war, 77–79; in Revolutionary war, 99–115; President, 120–123; a portrait of, 121; again appointed Commander-in-chief, 125.
Washington, acquired, 128; admitted, 231.
Washington, the treaty of, 215.
Wayne, General Anthony, 108.
Weatherford, in the Creek war, 135.
Webster, Daniel, a portrait of, 146; in Tyler's Cabinet, 149.
West Point, Arnold at, 110.
West Virginia, admitted, 174.
Wethersfield, Conn., settlement of, 53.
Whig party, principles of, 141; on the Tariff question, 142, 144; elects John Quincy Adams, 143; elects William Henry Harrison, 149; elects Zachary Taylor, 160; extinction of, 162, 163.
Whitehall (N. Y.), captured, 104.
Wilderness, the battle of the, 201.
Williams, Roger, 51–53.
Williamsburg, Va., the battle of, 184.
Wilmington, Del., settlement of, 58.
Wilmot Proviso, the, 159.
Wilson, Woodrow, President, 237, 238–241.
Winchester, Va., the battle of, 203.
Windsor, Conn., settlement of, 53.
Winslow, Captain, 203.
Winthrop, John, 46, 52.
Wisconsin, explored, 70, 71; admitted, 160; fire in, 216.
Wisconsin River, discovered, 70.
Wolfe, General, captures Quebec, 82.
Wooster, General, at Quebec, 100.
Worden, Lieutenant, 183.
World War, 238–241.
Writs of assistance, 88.
Wyoming, acquired, 128; admitted, 231.

Yeardley, Sir George, governor, 35.
York, the Duke of, 40; New Netherland granted to, and named New York, 40; grants New Jersey, 48; grants Delaware, 59.
Yorktown, Va., in Revolutionary war, 115; siege of, by McClellan, 184.

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